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EDUCATIONAL METHOD

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DECEMBER, 1938

Steps in Transition

Status of the Workbook

Application of Educational Philosophy to the Use of Examinations

Educating the Child for Real Life

Published by The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association of the United States

VOLUME XVIII NUMBER 3

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Vol. XVIII DECEMBER, 1938 *No. 3*

EDUCATIONAL METHOD

STEPS IN TRANSITION

W. Paul Allen

Principal, Garfield Heights Elementary School, Garfield Heights, Cleveland, Ohio

It is impossible to mingle with the summer school students at any of our teacher-training institutions and not be convinced that there is a definite need for guidance in the transition from the old school to the new. One is deeply impressed with the urge there is among teachers and administrators to move forward in the elementary school. You hear on every hand, "What can I do

(1) If I am teaching in a very traditional school system and I am the only person in the system besides my principal and superintendent who has the desire to move forward?
(2) If my superintendent has said I can try something new this year and all the rest of the staff will be watching me? I must move carefully.
(3) If I am a principal and want to move forward but the superintendent is afraid and my teachers haven't the desire?"

The list of problems might be extended to include many others. These people want advice not only from those who are away from the "firing line" (and that has a dual meaning) but from those in the field who have taken some steps in transition. You can't attend any of the section meetings or study conferences of the Progressive Education Association, for example, and see the eagerness and enthusiasm of those present to learn more about its program, and not be convinced that the time is ripe for field assistance to those who want to advance. They need and want help from everyone: the expert in the field, the philosopher, the curriculum expert, the administrative leader—everyone who has made a study of the way forward.

We are suggesting that teacher meetings are a safe point of departure for any principal or superintendent who wants to move ahead. There is nothing new in the idea of teacher meetings. We have always had them. So, if you want to aid your teachers in transitional steps, here is a good place to begin.

Panel Discussion

Have you tried a panel discussion on a topic that is vital to a majority of your group? Ask five of your teachers to prepare an informal discussion on some topic that is of interest to all the group. After they have given careful thought to the question among themselves, invite the other teachers to hear these five people discuss what they have been

thinking. We suggest some points to remember in initiating this type of discussion.

1. If your teachers have never seen a panel discussion, have some of them visit a school that uses this method. If this can't be done, have someone explain to the panel group the general procedure.
2. Strive for informality.
3. Select a topic that is of interest to a majority of the group—preferably, at first, one that all have done some thinking about and are not afraid to discuss.
4. Have some books and magazines available to read on the topic.
5. Choose the panel group so that there is one leader who is skillful in bringing out ideas from everyone on the panel.
6. Encourage free thinking. Discuss with the entire assembly what the democratic procedure is. Differences of opinion are healthy and stimulating. Avoid being personal.
7. The audience should be informed in advance as to the topic to be discussed.
8. Save time at the close of the panel for discussion from the audience.

Multiple Panel

If you have a number of teachers, say twenty-five or more, in your school system, why not try a multiple panel? Divide the entire group into three to ten different groups, depending on the number present. Have five or ten in each group—the smaller the separate groups, the better. Appoint a leader for each group, and have one person leading the entire group. If you feel that there is no one on your staff capable of leading a particular discussion, add a little prestige to the meeting by inviting an outside leader. The leader opens the meeting, introduces the main problem, breaks it down into some leading question. Each group is given three minutes to discuss the question; then the leader of each of the various groups presents to the entire group a digest of the thinking of his group on the question. The main leader summarizes this discussion and then presents a second question for discussion. This type of panel discussion has the advantage of allowing everyone present to participate. At the second multiple panel, divide the people into different groups than the first time and have new group leaders. We recommend this type of discussion as a means of bringing teachers from several buildings together.

Round-Table Discussion

The round-table discussion is simply a meeting of the entire staff, sitting down together in an informal manner to discuss some problem of the school that is of interest to all the members. We strive for informality in the classroom but frequently fail to apply it to teacher meetings. Serve tea at the beginning of the meeting. Sit in a circle or around a table. Make everyone feel at home. Have the topic for discussion announced in advance. Bring the school secretary along to take down important notes from the discussion. Make everyone feel his contribution has been worth while and well received. I have found it helpful to write certain teachers before the discussion, outlining to them some of the problems in detail. These teachers then feel they should participate in the conference. Approval is an incentive to adults as well as to children. Occasionally write a note to a teacher who has made some valuable contribution to the discussion, thanking her for her professional leadership.

Social Meeting

Don't forget that what you say doesn't mean as much as what you are. The principal can move forward who commands the respect of his teachers from a human relations standpoint. The meeting may be all social, and some should be, or it may be a dinner meeting followed by a round-table discussion. The social meeting calls for as much preparation as any other meeting. Here, again, the main thing to remember is to make everyone feel at ease. The leader

of this meeting should be someone who is socially sensitive to the attitudes, likes, and dislikes of individual members of the group.

Another suggestion is that you invite the Board of Education to attend some of the meetings. They should be present at some of the discussion meetings as well as the social meetings. We have neglected to include the Board of Education in many of our discussions. After all, they—more than anyone else—should be informed on what the teachers are thinking. At certain meetings, when the topic is suitable, invite the parents to attend; some may be willing to participate in the discussion.

Lecture Meeting

It is stimulating now and then to have someone from outside the school system give a lecture. In our particular system, the Board of Education provides sufficient funds for this purpose. But this came about as a result of the teachers first showing interest. Each teacher used to contribute one dollar toward a speaker fund. As an outgrowth of this interest, the Board expressed their willingness to participate in the professional meetings and now they pay for two speakers a year.

Teacher Conferences

This type of teacher meeting is the most valuable of all in laying the groundwork for a step forward. The meetings may be of several types: (a) a group of teachers; (b) the principal and a group of teachers; (c) the principal and one teacher.

If you have a situation where the staff members do not want to change their ways, study your teachers; find something that is progressive in your most respected teacher. Begin with that one thing and lead her into an enlargement of it or into trying as an experiment something similar to it in another line of activity. If you can sell the idea to this one teacher, you have gone a long way toward selling the proposition to others.

Those in charge of selecting topics for discussion might well keep in mind that the best way to get teachers to change their attitude toward educational change is to focus their attention on the child. We suggest the best approach is by a study of the pupil accounting system of your school. What do we want to tell the parents about the child? What records will be helpful in our understanding of the child? Teachers can't think along this line for very long without realizing the inadequacy of our present system of child accounting. Even if you are powerless to change your report form, you have centered their thinking around child growth and child development. This is the first step in transition. Any device that transfers teacher attention from subject matter to children is a good one. It is for this reason we suggest home reports or pupil records as a topic for your teacher meetings. It is a tangible subject, much more so than merely child development.

DEMOCRATIC AND CREATIVE SUPERVISION IN PRINCIPLE AND IN PRACTICE—PART II [1]

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IV. THE PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE OF SUPERVISION

THE PAST

According to Bennett,[2] supervision started out in this country some two hundred years ago in the form of inspections by school committees. This was hardly supervision in the sense that we think of it today. Yet, it was supervision of a sort, and made up most of what school supervision there was for about one hundred years. Supervision, or inspection, *by school people* has existed for only about one hundred years; and in its early stages a "superintendent" was hired to do the supervising.

As Proctor [3] says, "It [supervision] originated to correct the disgraceful condition of teaching in our public schools." At the time of its origin and until very recently, anyone who was reputed to have "book knowledge" or a stilted scholarly appearance was hired "to 'learn' the scholars the 3 R's" or "teech" school. Many times, however, even these qualifications could not be met, and school committees had considerable difficulty getting anyone to take the school since there was a very meager salary, if any, and since teaching was often far from a pleasant chore. Frequently, there was some question as to whether the "teechur" knew as much as her better scholars; and even more frequently the delicate task of thrashing "pupiles" into submission and enforcing a rigid discipline was as much of an issue as was the "book larnin'." Of course, there were many exceptions to this picture—some better and some worse—but if histories and stories handed down to us are at all accurate, teaching in the public schools was hardly a credit to nor a proper preparation for American Democracy. It is well to call attention, at this point, to the fact that supervision in the form of inspection, checking-up, and "qualifying" of "teechurs" originated to meet such conditions as just described; and due to the fact that supervisors were often equally unqualified, it is not surprising that supervision became what it was.

However, these conditions in the schools just described were not the only causes which contributed to making supervision what it was. Equally as important were the dominating philosophy of the times and the rigid fixed curriculum. It is hardly necessary to more than mention the fact that rugged individualism on the one hand and authoritarianism on the other dominated almost the entire life of the people. The rugged individualism of the frontier and nearly all of nineteenth century America are well known, and almost equally familiar to all is the authoritarianism which permeated religious, family, and economic life. The narrow, fixed curriculum with the underlying assumption of a static society, as well as methods of teaching based on faculty psychology

[1] Part I of this article appeared in the November issue.
[2] Bennett, J. M., "The Supervising Principal and Constructive Supervisor," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 22: 88-104 (February, 1936).
[3] Proctor, Milton D., "Supervision," *Educational Method*, 10: 196-199 (January, 1931).

and made up quite largely of textbook memorization, also helped to determine the nature of early supervision. It is only natural that supervision should have become a matter of authoritarian inspection and checking up to see that certain fixed patterns were followed by teachers, and it is probably quite safe to say that this pattern of supervision fitted into the total picture quite well.

Due to the nature of early supervision, discussions of supervisory problems were more concerned with the mechanical aspects of inspecting than with ways of providing experiences for teacher growth and methods of improving the curriculum and the schools to meet the needs of a changing society. Such problems as whether to enter the front or the back door (if there were two doors), what items to put on their rigid inspection lists, how many pages of the text to require the teacher to cover, and whether to sit at the teacher's desk or stand at the rear of the room loomed much larger than many more vital phases of the educational program.

Supervision continued well into the 20th Century without fundamental changes from the way it was originally set up—despite the fact that more and more well-trained teachers entered this budding profession. The better trained teachers naturally resented the old methods of supervision which checked them and inspected them as if they also were almost as entirely unqualified for teaching as were their predecessors. As a result, obtaining and maintaining the good will of the teachers became an increasingly serious problem. Proctor characterizes the years from about 1916 to 1922 [4] as the reactionary period during which supervision was subjected to a growing volume of attack and criticism by teachers and other educators. In many school systems, supervision actually slowed up progress because old-fashioned supervisors forced even the better and more progressive teachers to adhere to older practices.

Partially as a result of the attacks on supervision and partially because the movement was sweeping all of education anyway, attempts began to be made to make supervision more scientific. Now, attempts to be scientific are to be commended if they approach that goal; but unfortunately many attempts to be scientific have resulted in employing techniques not suitable to the particular problem at hand and have shifted attention away from major issues. Too often the investigator has been more interested in the "scientific appearance" of his findings than in a real solution to his problem, and many have maltreated their data and generalized on insufficient evidence. Probably the greatest weakness in attempts to make education scientific, however, has been the choosing of the wrong problem to study—the investigator selecting some problem for which he could easily and mechanically secure statistical data that was "scientific" in appearance rather than attacking more significant, but also more difficult, problems. The result was, as Brim [5] says, that the educator "busied himself much in studying and improving the conventional school. . . . Yet had he looked deeply into the scientific movement, had he caught its deeper significance, he would have challenged the entire educational structure."

These faults of scientific education in general apply word for word to most attempts to make supervision scientific. Rather than reconsidering the whole purpose and philosophy of supervision, supervisors have perfected mechanical check lists, rating scales, educational tests, and other similar devices to use within the old shell of "snoopervision" and inspection. The result was and has been that supervision has "in general made only

[4] In the opinion of the writer this date could as well be "1938+," as many practices attacked are still used and are still being objected to by teachers.

[5] Brim, Orville G., "Reconstructing Our Concept of Scientific Supervision," *Education*, 53: 579 (June, 1933).

superficial and mechanical improvements over what it was nearly 50 years ago. With this last statement, I shall assume that the reader has not only been brought up to the present but that he is actually in "the present" as far as supervision is concerned.

The Present

Although we always live in the present and have more or less of an eye for the future in addition, ***the present*** from another aspect is only a continuation of the past. In other words, the present is not only something in itself and a "becoming" with respect to the future but it is also an "emerging" with respect to the past. Because this is so, we find no sharp differences between the recent past and the present in the field of education and supervision; and it is hardly possible that there will be any sudden changes in their fundamental structure in the future—even though some school systems do change the names of their programs and falsely imagine that classroom teaching and supervision have kept pace with the change in names. It must be kept in mind, as earlier pointed out, that changes in society and in general school practices take place relatively slowly—because fundamental changes come only as the result of the cumulative experiences of the people.

Most supervisory programs have changed and have improved some; but I believe it is not unduly pessimistic to say that most changes have consisted of minor surface improvements and have not been fundamentally a shifting from fascistic and authoritarian practices to an operating philosophy of true democratic principles and creativeness. However, it is doubtful if school supervision is any less democratic and creative than the total educational program or present-day social and economic life. Some do claim that supervision is out of step with the rest of education, and it does seem that qualifications of supervisors have not been raised as rapidly as the standards for teachers. But I doubt, without evidence other than my experience, if there is a smaller percentage of creative and democratic supervisors than there is of creative and democratic teachers (including the "teachers of teachers").

Despite the lack of radical changes in supervision there are several current tendencies worth noting. There seems to be a growing realization that "force" and administrative edicts do not lead to genuine teacher growth; also the additional realization of the need for more real educational leaders in supervisory and administrative positions. Although teachers are still treated as artisans and as unwilling and untrained workers in many systems, the trend is toward recognizing our growing body of comparatively well-trained teachers as a real profession and treating its members accordingly. The efficacy of many old devices such as rating scales, inspection lists, etc. are being questioned and eliminated. More school systems are using curriculum revision and course of study development as a means of teacher growth—partially because it is realized that teachers should have a greater voice in such things anyway.

Supervision is becoming more and more the responsibility of principals and all people in positions of educational leadership. There is a trend toward the development of new report cards and new types of permanent records along with efforts to develop methods for evaluating the total educational program rather than to be content with subject matter mastery and such things as were emphasized in the old type of standard rural school score card. In line with this is the trend away from supervision along subject matter lines. Above all there seems to be a growing tendency to reconsider the emphasis of the whole program with reference to democratic principles and ideals and to seek new techniques and devices in harmony

with a progressive philosophy of education and teacher needs. The responsibility for improving the teaching-learning situation is gradually being recognized as the function of the whole professional staff; and this is really a diffusion of the responsibility held in the early days by the "superintendent" or supervisor.

Many supervisors and administrators actively oppose teacher freedom; and although they often rationalize beautifully, "for the good of the schools, etc.," they curtail teacher freedom because they actually fear for their own positions. They know, whether they admit it or not, that many of their newer teachers are better trained and know more about the business of modern education than they do; and they fear that these teachers may show them up for the poorly qualified old-fashioned schoolmen that they are. Of course, these older supervisors and administrators could keep growing (and some have) and improve their qualifications by taking summer work and leaves of absence for further study and travel; but for many this requires too much effort. Rather than to endure the uncertainty and ego-injury involved in changing their ideas, they build up around them a wall of rationalizations and gleefully seize upon every little weakness they can find in the applications of the newer philosophy to defend themselves.

This lack of continued growth on the part of many educational leaders and their willingness to smother the ideas of more recently trained teachers is a part of the cause of such statements as the following by Melby: [6] "Our administrative efforts exhibit a very disturbing lack of stimulative effect upon the growth of teachers and others who are associated with us." Melby then gives a partial explanation by saying, "It is much easier to control a group of people by domination than it is to promote their growth through stimulating association."

Maintaining the good will of teachers is still a live problem of supervisors in many school systems. The sad part of this problem is not only that the often justified ill will of teachers brings injury to the instructional program but that many supervisors and superintendents are almost totally unaware of what teachers really think of their supervision. Teachers prefer a docile acquiescence on the surface and would rather cover up their weaknesses than risk the dangers of low ratings, poor recommendations, and possible discharge; and it is extremely silly for supervisors to imagine that teachers will be frank with them when such conditions dominate the situation. All administrators and supervisors, however, are not unaware of the situation. Their own experiences as well as studies such as Hart's,[7] which found that only 50 per cent of the teachers involved considered supervision to be helpful, have brought the problem to the surface in many areas.

Some have made efforts to get away from this antagonism and contempt of teachers by "name-changing," giving their supervisors such titles as director, supervising teacher, or helping teacher (this name-changing doesn't fool teachers even though it does seem to fool some supervisors and give administrators something to talk about at conferences). A few have thrown up the sponge and decided that supervision was an undesirable thing since they, or their supervisors, carried it on in an undesirable way. Some, but too few, have answered the challenge of teacher resentment with genuine democratic changes to serve better the purposes for which supervision exists.

Supervision has a little more than held its own since 1930 in terms of numbers, at least in the rural areas, despite the depression.

[6] Melby, E. O., "The Teacher and the School System." *The Teacher and Society*, First Yearbook, John Dewey Society, Chapter VI, pp. 119-143. D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937.
[7] Hart, M. C., "Supervision from the Standpoint of the Supervised," *Education*, 50: 364-368.

The following quotation from a U. S. Office of Education Bulletin [8] shows the above to be true:

> In 1930, 945 supervisors were engaged in the schools of approximately 22% of the counties in the United States. For the school year 1935-1936, 975 such supervisors are reported in 27% of the total number of counties.

From the same Bulletin we learn that 16 states reported an increase in the number of rural supervisors while only 3 reported a decrease. These data are encouraging, although 27 per cent of the total number of counties is really not a very high percentage. Even if we accept Ross's [9] statement that only 50 per cent of the schools in the country can afford organized supervision, there is still roughly 23 per cent left.

Present-day supervisory programs vary tremendously. A few seem to have full-fledged programs of democratic and creative supervision; many in the middle have made various types of improvements; and a few extreme ones are about as bad as they could be. Like social institutions and education as a whole, however, supervision is slowly changing, and new trends previously described are slowly emerging which we hope will lead in the direction of a more creative and democratic type of supervision.

The Future

Teachers can continue to grow creatively best under the guidance of genuine and natural professional leaders. Teachers can assume much of the responsibility for maintaining high standards within their profession; but teachers and school systems improve most when teachers' professional activities are coordinated and guided by real democratic leaders and when teachers have available many special services to help them. Just as wise teacher guidance can speed up and give direction to the creative growth of children, so can wise supervisory guidance speed up and give direction to the creative growth of teachers. These things just described make up the function of supervision; and because this is an extremely important function, supervision has probably barely seen its beginning, let alone realized its ultimate possibilities.

Some further inkling as to the possible future of supervision can be gained from the following quotation from Kilpatrick:[10]

> Nor need any fear that our success will ever make "supervision" unnecessary. If no more, there will always be a new crop of teachers coming on. And, paradoxically enough, the more our teachers learn from us, the more will they turn to us for help, help perhaps of a different kind, less of dependency upon superior, more of the shared conferring among equals.

There is a serious question as to whether supervision can survive in anything like its original or much of its present form. As Newlon [11] wrote in 1929:

> Supervision is due for an overhauling. The attack which has been made in the last 15 years on the fundamental problems of curriculum and methods will force it.

Some "overhauling" has taken place since Newlon wrote this, but much more overhauling must be done. The whole educational structure of the past has been and is still being questioned; but as the smoke clears, we are beginning to see emerging from the confusion the vision of a new school and a revised concept of democratic education. (An interesting aspect of this "new school" is that it is visualized not as an ideal one which can be put into being and then remain static but rather as a dynamic school

[8] *U. S. Office of Education Bulletin*, 1937, No. 2, "Review of Conditions and Developments in Education in Rural and Other Sparsely Settled Areas," p. 32-33. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office.
[9] Ross, Carmon, "Supervision for the Small School or Merely Inspection?" *Nation's Schools*, 5: 96-100 (April, 1930).
[10] Kilpatrick, William H., "Democracy in Supervision." *Educational Supervision*, First Yearbook, National Conference on Educational Method, 1928, p. 264.
[11] Newlon, Jesse H., "Creative Supervision in High Schools," *Teachers College Record*, 30: 635-646 (April, 1929).

ever-changing to meet the needs of a growing democracy).

The exact form which supervision will take as the schools change is uncertain. However, it seems likely, judging from present trends, that supervision will gradually be modified in the direction of the creative and democratic supervision described in this paper. It may be that teachers will select their own supervisors or supervise themselves more, as Myers [12] advocates; but his ideas do not differ essentially, at least in spirit, from what I have presented. I have assigned a more important role to "educational leaders" than Myers does, however; and I think I can and shall continue to do so without becoming undemocratic.

The growth of supervision, I believe, will hinge upon whether or not it becomes more creative and democratic because this will determine quite largely how genuinely it contributes to democratic American education. Of course, if our government should become less *democratic* or take on some other form, this statement can be thrown out. However, as previously expressed in this paper, my hope and trust is that the United States will become more truly democratic, that the schools will continue to serve our democracy better, and that supervision will foster more creative and democratic education through creative and democratic procedures.

THE STATUS OF THE WORKBOOK IN CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION

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Within the past twenty-five years there have been numerous changes in methods and materials of instruction in the schools. Some of these have caused considerable improvement over traditional classroom procedure; others have attracted a great deal of attention for a short time, only to be discarded later as scientifically unsound.

Among these innovations is the workbook which has been appearing in ever increasing numbers and variety. For years, workbooks or worksheets had been used by instructors in science and mathematics as an aid to problem solving and in the recording of results obtained by laboratory experiments. But only recently has the use of the workbook been carried over into other fields of instruction. Practically every new textbook that appears on the market at the present time has a workbook supplementing the material that it presents.

What is the nature of these workbooks? There are two main types of workbooks: the general type and the specific type. The general type is so constructed that it can be used with practically any text if sufficient supplementary material is available. The specific type, on the other hand, follows very closely the sequence and material of a single textbook and serves as an aid to the pupil in picking out the more important parts of the assignments. In most cases the specific type is preferred by teachers. For the purpose of this study we shall use the terms "worksheet" and "workbook" interchangeably, although they differ slightly.

[12] Myers, Alonzo F., "Will Education Go Democratic?" *Clearing House*, 11: 263-267 (January, 1937).

There are several reasons for the appearance of the workbook in classroom procedure. Among them are: (1) the increase in enrollment of the public schools and the corresponding increase in the number of pupils in individual classes; (2) the increase in length of the class period, which necessitated proper supervision for supervised study. According to some authorities, the increase in the teaching load has made the substitution of labor-saving devices necessary if the teacher is to conduct her classes efficiently. The workbook also seems, to some observers, to be an efficient aid in handling classes during the supervised study period.

The following arguments are raised by the proponents of the use of the workbook:

1. It reduces the labor of teacher and pupil.
2. It develops the initiative and independence of the pupil.
3. The material is arranged in a more definite sequence than the plans of most teachers.
4. It puts proper stress on the essential parts of the text.
5. It tests while it teaches.
6. It adjusts the instruction to individual differences.
7. It is less expensive.

The opponents deny assumptions one, six, and seven and in addition contend that

1. The workbook emphasizes textbook material to too great an extent.
2. Teachers tend to follow the workbook too slavishly.
3. The pupil who uses a workbook does not develop the ability to express himself in proper literary form.

What are the opinions of persons who are recognized as authorities in their subject fields? The vast majority of references consulted made no mention either for or against the use of workbooks. In fact, most of them didn't mention the term at all. This leaves one under the impression that most individuals are not eager to make any statement, either pro or con, until more and better researches have been made on the subject.

However, in primary reading, several writers have expressed their belief that workbooks have a very definite place in the classroom procedure. Gates[1] states that they are very useful in introducing new words and in developing skills. In addition he states that they can save up to forty per cent of the time of the first grade reading teacher. They also enable the teacher to discover just what part of the day's work should be reconsidered and reread. Hildreth[2] claims that the "small units of material presented at one time focus the wandering attention of the young child better than the continuous material of the textbook." Vreeland[3] states that the workbook "tends to foster an intimate personal contact between pupil and teacher."

The report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, in a book edited by Ernest Horn,[4] adopts an entirely different point of view. This report states that "the results of investigations of the instructional value of workbooks are not consistent in indicating whether or not they aid learning." It goes on to say that "with but few exceptions, the workbooks in current use tend to increase rather than to offset the formalism and verbalism that, in the past, have pervaded the teaching of social studies." The committee cited several investigations as having been inconclusive. Unfortunately, these are unpublished master's theses from other schools and are not available in libraries. Wesley[5] claims that "the workbook idea is based upon the fallacy that there is a definite body of

[1] Gates, Arthur I., *New Methods in Primary Reading*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.
[2] Hildreth, Gertrude, *Learning the Three R's*. Philadelphia: Educational Publishers, 1936.
[3] Vreeland, Wendell, "A Good Workbook from the Teacher's Point of View." *Nation's Schools*, 18: 35-37 (July, 1936).
[4] Horn, Ernest, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937.
[5] Wesley, E. B., "Workbooks in the Social Studies." *Historical Outlook*, 22: 151-153 (April, 1931).

information which will produce the desired results in the social studies." Rigg[6] is of the opinion that we are "making mere blank fillers out of students" and neglecting the development in the pupil of proper habits in selecting important points and in organizing the material in his own mind.

All of the writers, both pro and con, recognize the lack of adequate research in this field and are careful to remark that these opinions are merely their own assumptions.

Experimental Evidence on Workbooks

Up to the present, there has not been a great deal of experimental evidence concerning the efficiency or inefficiency of the workbook method. Perhaps this is due chiefly to its comparatively recent appearance in the field of education. There are no articles listed under the heading of workbooks in the *Education Index* until the year 1931. However, the writer has been able to find some research on the subject from a period prior to that date. The results of some of the investigations are recorded briefly in the following paragraphs.

During the years 1927-1928 and 1928-1929, Hurd[7] performed a series of experiments to determine the relative values of workbooks and other traditional methods of instruction in teaching high school physics. His first two experiments attempted to contrast a lecture method with a supervised-study method, work sheets for the unit being used with the supervised-study groups. The results from these experiments were inconclusive, one favoring the lecture method and the other favoring the supervised-study method. The ability of the lecturer was a variable that was not taken into consideration in performing this experiment.

Later experiments were planned as work-sheet versus no-work-sheet experiments. Attempts were made to keep all other factors constant. Eight of these trials showed differences in favor of the groups using worksheets; four showed differences in favor of the groups without worksheets; two showed practically no difference. Hurd's conclusion was that worksheets tend to help pupils in high school physics but are not indispensable.

An experiment to determine the value of the Gates plan in teaching primary reading was performed in the public schools of Indiana, Pennsylvania, by Florence W. Raguse.[8] In this plan work materials corresponding to the materials found in ordinary reading workbooks were used but factors such as supplementary reading and other features of the Gates plan were used as well. Grade I was divided into two groups—A and B, based upon I. Q.'s obtained by using the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test. Both groups were given the same method of instruction and toward the close of the term were examined by the Gates Primary Reading Test. The A section had achieved a score which represents the reading ability of the average pupil eight-tenths of the way through the second grade, while the average achievement of the B section surpassed the grade norm in every test. Just how much of this was due to the use of the work materials is open to question.

During the years 1932-1933 and 1933-1934, Peterson[9] conducted an experiment in the Drum Hill High School at Peekskill, New York, to determine the relative value of published workbooks and pupil-made notebooks in ninth grade general science. The pupils of one section kept notebook records of their laboratory experiments and experiences, together with the key words necessary to understand the terminology of the subject matter. With the group using the workbook the problem of an experiment was

[6] Rigg, H. H., "Are We Making Blank Fillers Out of Students?" *School Executives*, 51: 329 (March, 1932).
[7] Hurd, A. W., "The Workbook as an Instructional Aid." *School Review*, 39: 608-616 (October, 1931).
[8] Raguse, Florence W., "Qualitative and Quantitative Achievements in First Grade Reading." *Teachers College Record*, 32: 424-436 (February, 1931).
[9] Peterson, G. W., "Published Workbooks Versus Pupil-Made Notebooks in Ninth Grade General Science." *School Review*, 43: 608-613 (October, 1935).

given; the drawings of the apparatus were usually supplied, though not labeled; the procedure was described; and blank spaces were left in which the pupil wrote his observations and computations. In two of the three experiments conducted, the results favored the group using the self-made notebook. Peterson concluded that other factors were more important than the methods used, chief of which was the ability of the teacher in charge of the section. He also found that the workbook was slightly better for the pupils of high I. Q.'s, while the opposite was true of pupils having low I. Q.'s.

A similar experiment was performed by Stubbs [10] in the Athens School at the University of Chattanooga. Here again the test was made to determine whether pupil-made notebooks or workbooks were more effective. Three investigations were made, two of which were direct tests of these two methods. In the first investigation Stubbs found that the group using the notebook method surpassed the group using the workbook in two tests, the first one given after one week had passed and the second at the end of one month. The second investigation gave the same results on the first test, but the group using the workbooks were better at the end of the month. Although the experiment showed that pupil-made notebooks were slightly better than workbooks, Stubbs concluded that the many extra hours needed by the students to write separate detailed notes and by the instructor to correct them are not justified by the results obtained.

The most complete investigation made thus far on the subject of workbooks was conducted by Scott [11] in the junior and senior high schools of Garden City, Kansas. Twelve different classes were chosen for the experiment. Each of these was divided into three sections: A, B, and C. Group A was taught by the use of the textbook only; Group B used both the textbook and the workbook; Group C was taught by the workbook only. To avoid any difference due to the ability of the teacher, the three sections were taught by the same instructor. The teacher was guided by exactly the same objectives for each group.

After a reasonable period of instruction, the same test was given to each section and the results that were obtained follow. Five classes—ninth-grade algebra, eleventh-grade English, ninth-grade biology, twelfth-grade history and tenth-grade geometry—showed gains for the workbook alone over the other two groups. In four classes—ninth-grade English, tenth-grade English, seventh-grade geography and eighth-grade civics—the pupils learned better by the textbook alone. In three classes—seventh-grade mathematics, eighth-grade English, and seventh-grade English—the advantage was in favor of the section using both the textbook and the workbook. The results were almost evenly divided, with a slight advantage in favor of the workbook group.

In addition to performing the experiment just described, Scott sought to collect and summarize all the results that had been obtained in workbook studies up to the time of his report (1937). In all, he found sixteen studies that had been made by educators in different parts of the country. More than likely some of the investigations mentioned in this article were among them. In these studies, fifty-seven groups were taken into consideration. Thirty-seven of these showed results in favor of the workbook. However, only eleven of the thirty-seven were statistically significant.

Of the thirty-seven cases showing gains in favor of the workbook, eighteen were in mathematics, nine in science, four in home economics, four in English, and two in history. Of the eleven statistically significant

[10] Stubbs, M. F., "An Experimental Study of Methods for Recording Laboratory Notes in High School Chemistry." *School Science and Mathematics*, March, 1926.
[11] Scott, I. O., "Is the Workbook Really Worth While?" *American School Board Journal*, 95: 27-28 (August, 1937).

results, four were in science, three in mathematics, three in English, and one in history.

Scott concluded that "the lack of conclusive results in this experiment or in any investigations made previously to determine the value of the workbook indicates that if this teaching device is to be correctly evaluated, more research on the problem is essential."

Summary and Conclusions

Because of the comparatively recent appearance of the workbook [12] in the field of education, there has not been sufficient research to determine fully its merits or defects. Experiments have generally been conducted in junior and senior high schools, while certain grades especially in the elementary field have not even been considered. Before any really scientific generalizations can be made, a great deal more experimentation will have to take place.

There is some agreement among those authorities on reading who mentioned the subject of workbooks [13] that these materials are of considerable aid to the teacher and pupil in the primary grades. They give the pupil a small, definite unit on which to work. In addition, they afford the teacher a reliable check on the extent to which the pupil has mastered the material covered during the class period.

Authorities in the field of the social sciences seem to discourage the use of workbooks in those subjects. They claim that these devices tend to stultify originality, i.e., they have a tendency merely to develop the pupil's ability to hand back to the teacher the ready-made answers of the author rather than to develop original critical thinking on the part of the pupil. Such a thing as originality is difficult to measure. Therefore, the above statement is perhaps a little more philosophical than scientific.

The experiments conducted have been, on the whole, inconclusive. For every result favoring the workbook group, there has been a corresponding one favoring the group without workbooks. In research of this type it is very difficult to determine just what is the cause of the difference between two groups. There are so many variables which have to be controlled that very often some are overlooked and these affect the results of the experiment considerably. The greatest of these, perhaps, is the teacher, and there seems to be no effective way to control her personality and teaching ability.

There is always the danger that the teacher may follow the workbook too slavishly. This is especially true of those who are weak or have had poor preparation. Perhaps it is better, nevertheless, to let the poor teacher follow the material in that manner rather than have her flounder around helplessly, as is often the case. The good teacher can be trusted to give the workbook the proper place in her classroom instruction.

The workbook saves time for both the teacher and the pupil. If properly used, it enables the teacher to discover the weaknesses of the pupil. Individual differences can be taken care of more effectively by the use of the workbook. A great deal of the time formerly spent by the teacher in group drills and check-ups can be used to a greater degree of benefit in individual instruction. At the same time, the bright pupil can continue his progress without being forced to keep step with the slow-moving members of the class.

[12] Maxwell, C. R., "The Workbook a Recent Development." *American School Board Journal*, 88: 16 (March, 1934).
[13] Gates, Arthur I., "The Workbook in Practice." *School Executives*, 51: 349-350 (April, 1932).

THE APPLICATION OF EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY TO THE USE OF EXAMINATIONS

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A philosophy of education, clearly understood and consistently applied, will inevitably extend its influence to all phases of a school system. It will produce changes and alterations in traditional school practices which seem so remotely related to the principle of philosophy in question that the average teacher never suspects the connection.

Recently a group of students preparing to teach in the elementary schools attempted to formulate a working philosophy of progressive education. They first agreed upon a principle of philosophy: that any course should be based upon definitely conceived aims and objectives which are understood and accepted as worthy by both teachers and pupils. Following the acceptance of this statement as a basic tenet of philosophy, the students made an examination of various school practices to determine what procedures would harmonize with the accepted philosophy. The following suggestions were given as criteria for the proper use of examinations if such examinations were to be in accord with the above principle of philosophy:

1. *The purposes of examinations will be seen in a different light.* Since definite and worthwhile aims have been set up for the course, both teachers and pupils will be interested in evaluating the progress the pupil is making toward achieving the established goals. To that end it will be necessary to devise various methods of measuring progress. Examinations will be used more often for diagnostic purposes. Rather than being used as a final major hurdle to climax a unit or a course, they will be used to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the pupils, and their position in relation to the accepted objectives.

2. *Exclusive dependence will be put on no single form of examination.* While subjectivity should be eliminated whenever possible by the use of objective tests, it may, nevertheless, often be necessary to use subjective examinations. According to whether the aim of the educational process is to establish a body of factual knowledge, to build appreciations, to establish skill, to engender open-mindedness, or to develop the ability to organize material and think logically, the examination will vary in form and content. Sometimes objective examinations will be most suitable, at other times subjective examinations. For some of the objectives listed above, in fact, no satisfactory pencil and paper examinations are available, and evaluation of progress is possible only by subjective judgments which must be recognized as having a high degree of unreliability. If an aim is worthy of achievement, the progress of pupils in reference to it must be evaluated. Appraisal of growth and achievement should not be disregarded, nor worthwhile objectives ignored, simply because methods of examinations must be subjective.

3. *Examinations will be given at varying intervals.* Instead of a formal, routinized system in which examinations are regularly given at the end of every six weeks, they will be given when the need arises for measuring the pupil's progress. Examinations to determine the growth of broad-mindedness and tolerance cannot be given as often as examinations to test the mastery of the fundamental processes of arithmetic. This is true for two reasons. First, a measure

of broad-mindedness and tolerance is necessarily much more subjective and difficult to administer than a test of arithmetic. Second, and basically important in this connection, such intangible attributes do not develop at nearly so rapid a rate as skill in numerical manipulations.

4. *Pupils should be encouraged to meet examinations without cramming.* If the point of philosophy under consideration can be fully applied, cramming will automatically be discontinued. If the accepted aim of a pupil is to develop an ability in music so he can perform creditably in public, then cramming when he is to take an examination to determine whether he is ready for public appearance will defeat his own purpose. Rather he will want to meet the examination in his present state of preparation, so that his achievement in relation to the goal may be more accurately ascertained.

By the same token, cheating would be eliminated. Obviously the most villainous crook, an Al Capone, would not cheat on a course intended to teach him how to evade the income tax law successfully. John Dillinger would never have cheated in a course on "How to Crack Safes." Can one imagine a person who has paid a professional golfer $50 for instruction in the game cheating in the course? The problem of cramming and cheating will be nearly solved if definite and worthy objectives accepted by both teachers and pupils can be established.

5. *In some situations pupils might be encouraged to prepare, either wholly or in part, their own methods of examination and apply them.* This suggestion would be most feasible in courses using projects, as, for example, dramatic productions, industrial arts, or home economics. While this procedure would seem to have definite limitations, it would have the advantage of encouraging the pupil to think in terms of the objectives toward which he is striving. He would be forced to evaluate his work in his own thinking, and come to see more clearly the reason for both the work itself and the process of evaluation.

6. *In constructing the objective type examination, especial attention will need to be given to the selection of items which will relate to the objectives of the course.* Trivial, inconsequential, and catch items would be ruled out. If the objective to be tested is the ability to analyze some important current problem in light of its historical development, questions used must permit the pupil to do just that thing. At the present stage of test construction, it is very doubtful whether an objective test can be devised to measure this ability accurately.

In the construction of objective tests this principle will often require the selection of items less objective in nature. Thus it is very easy to ask the birthplace and date of an author and the selections emanating from his pen, but it is much more difficult to ask strictly objective and non-debatable questions regarding the possible interpretations of his work.

7. *If the pupils have accepted objectives which they wish to achieve, it will then be necessary to give them full and complete reports on the results of their examinations in terms of their objectives.* Reports in the usual A, B, C form would be superfluous. If used at all, these letter marks should be supplemented by full and comprehensive reports to the pupil of his progress. In this case the letter marks would be recognized as merely symbolical evaluations.

A complete regard for the philosophy involved would require in many cases that the examination, if it is a written one, be returned to the pupil to be used as a basis for further growth. Conferences between pupils and teachers will also be an essential feature in this philosophy.

8. *Examinations would be used at the beginning of a course to determine where the pupils stand in relation to the objectives of*

the course. In this way it should be easier to adjust the work to the capacities of the pupils, and to determine which objectives need the major emphasis. Other course objectives may be included or excluded on the basis of pre-course testing.

At the conclusion of the course the closing examination might well come before the end of the term. In this way it would be possible to use the results as a basis for final corrections and assistance in improving the work of pupils. When used at the close of the course, as most final exams are, the pupils are generally deprived of all the value the examinations might have had in contributing to their growth and development.

9. *A wider use of teacher-made examinations will become necessary*. While standard examinations may be used for comparative purposes, and in some cases diagnostic and remedial purposes, the application of this philosophy requires the teacher to prepare many of her own evaluating instruments. Since each group of pupils will have needs different from other groups, each course will have different objectives. Even within the same subject a teacher who is conscientiously trying to meet the needs of her pupils will alter the course from year to year. Therefore teacher-made examinations will become an essential aid in determining whether the particular objectives developed for that course have been achieved.

10. *Many and varied class activities will assume an evaluatory aspect under the operation of this philosophy*. Almost certainly a variety of objectives will be set up for any particular course. In an effort to evaluate them, class recitations, oral and written expression, playground behavior, social attitudes, personal appearance, methods of study, and habits of thinking, as well as a host of other things, may afford the teacher a basis for measuring the progress and accomplishments of any particular pupil. Under this philosophy the problem of evaluation becomes much broader than merely the use of routine pencil and paper examination.

11. *The attitude of pupils toward examinations would be much improved if used in this fashion*. They should come to look upon examinations as opportunities for them to determine their own progress and achievements. Rather than being used as a check, exams would be used more largely for diagnostic and remedial purposes. This would afford the child a real opportunity for competition with himself and his previous level of achievement rather than the intense individual competition so often engendered by the use of the normal curve. In fact, under the usages of examinations as discussed above, the normal curve concept would once more be used as it should be—that is, in its broad applications only.

For the pupils "examination times" should no longer be regarded as ominous, but as providing instead an opportunity for an inventory. If teachers and pupils could once be brought to regard examinations in this way, they might truly be considered an educational device.

Admittedly there are many conditions in the average school situation which will interfere, or prevent, the uses of examinations as suggested above. Large classes, inflexible courses of study, inadequately prepared teachers, traditional attitudes, poor library facilities, meager pupil background, narrow curricular offerings, and over-loaded instructors, together with many other factors, will prevent the complete consummation of these suggestions regarding examinations. However, this discussion should have achieved two purposes: first, it should have indicated that adoption of a philosophy of education will necessarily alter educational practices; second, a discussion of ideal practices should give us a better idea of the direction in which to move if it is desired to alter present practices.

EDUCATING THE CHILD FOR REAL LIFE

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During the last ten or twelve years the world has become "leisure time" conscious. Practically every educational book and periodical advocates training for leisure time. What does this mean to the school teacher? More activity work? More excursions? More supervised games? It should have a greater significance than any of these. It should mean the conscious effort to influence the use of the out-of-school time of each pupil, for it is during this time that the child meets and is tremendously influenced by the other educational agencies that surround him.

All social agencies are educational: the movies, the home, church, gang, radio—in fact, everything that the child comes in contact with. The school plays but a minor role. Cox and Long [1] say: "The pupil's out-of-school life is a much more significant control of behavior and attitudes and growth than school studies are. . . . During all his waking hours the pupil is learning, in class some eight hundred hours a year and in extra-class life-curriculum four thousand, eight hundred waking hours, assuming ten hours each night of sleep." Hurt [2] says: "The backyard, playground, and street parallel and eclipse the school . . . the press, the radio, the motion picture and the comic strip all reach in after him." Other authors [3] add: "School plays a minor role in comparison with other social institutions and in contrast to the educational influences of natural associations with other individuals. . . . The school should supplement and coordinate, perhaps even correct the educational work of other social institutions." Though the school is a controlled environment, it is, as Cox says, "potentially no less educative than the street corner, vacant lot, family, library, Scout Troop, etc." It is within the power of every teacher to make this potential influence felt. It is not enough to bemoan the fact that there are too few playgrounds or that the children see terrible pictures. The school must do more than that. It cannot change these influences over night, but it can modify their effect on the pupils through intelligent guidance. This can be accomplished in several ways.

THE MOVIES

Perhaps the most influential of all the out-of-school agencies today is the motion picture. For this reason much has been written about its effect on children. It is possible in this article only to scratch the surface, but let us consider the matter briefly. Statistics show that thirty-seven per cent of moviegoers are children (this means that children under twenty average more than one movie a week); they retain ninety per cent of what they learn there, and more than fifty per cent of the average child's movie diet consists of pictures chiefly concerned with sex or crime or violence of some sort.

Eastman says, "What will your child see when he goes to the movies this week? He may see one of the good and great pictures, but the chances are that the principal picture will be saturated with crime and sex out of all proportions to normal living. It will contain at least one or two murders and various

[1] Cox, P. W. L., and Long, F. E., *Principles of Secondary Education.* New York: D. C. Heath and Co., 1932.
[2] Hurt, Huber W., *The Child and His Home.* New York: Minton, Balch and Co., 1931.
[3] Patterson, Samuel H., Choate, E. A., and Brunner, E. deS., *The School in American Society.* Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Co., 1936.

forms of exciting violence. It will be set against a background of luxury. It will contain drinking represented as either funny or the accepted thing in American society."

It is not difficult to see that some educating must be done. This can be effected in a number of ways. Children can be helped to select those pictures they do see. If the trouble is taken to stimulate their interest, they will enjoy informative films that many adults would consider boring. It is easily possible for a teacher to study the press notices of the movies to be shown at the neighborhood theaters during the week, select those that are the least harmful, and enlist the aid of the children who have seen the pictures to get the group to prefer those to some others. An enthusiastic discussion of a picture by one who has seen it is usually all that is necessary to arouse interest. For some of the better pictures, study outlines are available for school use.[4]

Most boys, and many girls too, for that matter, really enjoy Western films. They like the action and movement in these pictures. Then, too, one of the best things about a Western is that the hero can be applauded, and the children wait breathlessly for the opportunity. The hero is always honest, courageous, and trustworthy; the villain always pays the penalty for his "dastardly deeds." In ordinary shows the criminal often goes unpunished or his punishment is merely incidental.

Then, besides the Westerns, there are the delightful "Silly Symphonies" and Mickey Mouse cartoons. Children love them—even grownups do. Miss Dana Burnett[5] has expressed our feelings about one of Mickey's friends in her article, "The Rise of Donald Duck." She says: "I like the little duck for his intense seriousness of purpose as he helped to demolish Peg-leg Pete's car in a passionate search for squeaks. I like him also for a certain pugnaciousness of character. . . . We recognize that unlimited, unfettered world as one which we ourselves would *like* to inhabit, so that it becomes acutely real and dear to us."

Besides helping children in their selection of pictures, we should guide them in interpreting what they see. We can help them to acquire the adult "discount" with which a grownup views a picture. Discuss with them the luxurious settings and their impracticability in the average home, the trick photography, and the use of dummies in "taking such risks." Teachers are accustomed to preparing their pupils to appreciate a class trip to the museum or the zoo by talking over with them beforehand what they will look for during the excursion. Why can't the same technique be applied to their visits to the movies? Let the children make a list of all the kinds of transportation they see in the movies in one week, and see how much they can tell about each one. Try to center their attention on the "shorts." Schools in some sections of the country are attacking the problem by teaching the principles of drama as applied to the screen. The Horace Mann School in New York City is one that attempts to guide its pupils to an appreciation of the moving picture and to stimulate them to form their own opinions as to the merits of what they see.

Other people advocate a substitution method. Every child likes to act. If we watch children we find the younger ones "dress up" and mimic the people around them. They play "mother" and "school" at first; then they get up "shows." This interest can be stimulated by helping the children to produce and even write their own plays in school. The same idea is carried out by the Community Center in the summer, when they sponsor the traveling theater.

[4] Published by the National Council of Teachers of English, 211 West 68th Street, Chicago, Ill.
[5] Burnett, Dana, "The Rise of Donald Duck." *Pictorial Review*, October, 1935.

The actors are children from the city playgrounds.

Although we know that we, as individuals, cannot revolutionize the influence of the motion picture over night, it is our responsibility, as teachers, to try to modify that influence as much as possible.

The Newspaper

The New School knows that "children's education takes place in the world outside of the school and that its chief function is to help the youths to get for themselves effective education." [6] One of the most powerful factors of self-education is the newspaper. "The press is probably the greatest single force in the lives of the majority of adults in the United States today. . . . The average syndicate paper appeals to the emotions rather than intelligence of the average mind." [7] While we know this to be true, we know also that it is possible to find in practically every newspaper some space devoted to literature, health, science, art, and religion. The school should devote time to studying the newspapers, comparing and analyzing them, so that the children may develop an attitude of critical judgment. The prevailing idea that everything which appears in print is "true" must be corrected.

One cannot speak of the newspaper without giving some attention to that vast field of influence, "the funny papers." Many teachers rail against them, but they might as well beat their heads against a wall. Like the movies, the "funnies" are here to stay and are increasing in popularity. This is clearly shown by the fact that practically every paper has increased its comic section from two to four or more pages. Advertising agencies know the influence of this section and use it—so must the school.

Shakespeare in many of his plays called attention to the right thing by ridiculing the wrong. So we can use the funnies in passing along to children some of our ideas. If the class studies comic strips it soon learns that half of the fun is found in the language used by the characters—indeed, sometimes the entire point lies in their misuse of words. If children are made aware of this, they soon recognize the need of using correct English. It is possible to find some comics, such as "Skeezix," that do use correct form and these can be emphasized.

The funnies often drive home a lesson that the teacher has had difficulty in getting across. For example, David was always butting into everybody's business, and finally one day he was asked if he knew "Lena Pry" in the funny papers. There was very little trouble from then on. Another common source of annoyance was the habit of letting a friend step in front of a child standing in line. Then one Sunday there appeared a picture of Casper Milquetoast (The Timid Soul) trying to get in a telephone booth. He was still waiting when the sun went down, because he had let one person after another get in front of him in the line. The next time this problem arose in class, it was only necessary to remind the children of this comic strip.

Of course some strips are worse than others, but even the highly fantastic ones usually have something to their credit. One of these is "Flash Gordon." The story is absolutely impossible but the drawings are in lovely flowing lines, with contrasting colors beautifully spaced, all the art principles carefully carried out. This phase can be brought out so that the child will become interested in looking for it again. Practically all papers contain some truly educational information such as "Highlights of History," "Johnny in South America," etc.; and as far as some children are concerned, this is the only source from which they really get any history or geography. These articles are, it is true, more or less sugar-coated pills of wis-

[6] Cox and Long, *op. cit.*
[7] Patterson et al., *op. cit.*

dom. Then, too, many of the strips based on "the world of tomorrow" certainly accede to the social sciences' demand that we educate for a changing civilization.

As for the younger children, there is no greater incentive to learning to read than the desire to be able to read the funnies for themselves. Grownups are usually busy, or don't want to read them but once, which isn't sufficient for a small child. It is a real thrill for a boy to be able to spread a paper on the floor and spend half the morning reading and rereading the funnies for himself. Here is a reading readiness lesson already taught.

The Radio

"Familiarity precedes taste," says Patterson, and it is for this reason that the radio has such enormous possibilities of educating for good or bad. At first all broadcasts were from colleges or scientific experimentation centers, but with the rapid commercialization of radio, standards have been lowered to the mass level instead of an attempt being made to educate the masses for higher levels. Therefore it is the school's responsibility to undertake this educating for better things.

In some schools the radio is used to meet the parental demand for home-work. The day's radio program is studied during school time and the children are given assignments of various programs to listen to at home. Each child is held responsible for his assignment because no one else will have it.

Appreciation of the better music that comes over the air can be fostered in school. For example, when studying early Egyptian life, the music of *Aïda* may be played. This opera is a favorite with many artists and is heard frequently over the radio. Practically all of the children learn to recognize it and report enthusiastically on it. Pupils can become familiar with one or two classical pieces each week from victrola records in school. A study of radio programs should follow, to ascertain which ones would be most likely to include these selections. The pupils then listen to these programs at home and incidentally hear other good music while waiting hopefully for the playing of these particular selections.

It is almost impossible to keep children from listening to popular music, but they can be educated to prefer listening to the best of the modern orchestras rather than the worst. They can even be helped to understand why one is better than another, even though both play the same pieces. The possibilities of ear training with the radio are limitless. Children enjoy a recognition test in which they list all the instruments they hear in a given selection.

It seems almost superfluous to mention the Damrosch Hour because it is so well known, but there are a few points about these broadcasts that may be of interest here. Some children who are in the sixth grade mentally are only in the first grade musically. For that reason they should listen to the programs for the two lowest classes and not to those for the upper classes. The few who do enjoy the more difficult lessons may gather around the radio and listen while the rest of the class continues with other work. The sponsors of the Damrosch Hour and the Scientific Hour will send announcements of the broadcasts for the entire season to teachers who request them. There is usually a small fee for these pamphlets.

Gangs

"Whether a child lives in the city, the town, or the country," says Foster,[8] "whether he is privileged or underprivileged, he seeks friends and chums of his own age and liking, and forms with them small spontaneous social groups. These may become clubs or gangs, or may exist without any name at all, or the significance that names can imply. Even if altogether undirected and unknown

[8] Foster, Josephine, *Busy Childhood: Guidance Through Play and Activity.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1933.

to others, such groups have great value in the life of the child and seldom breed delinquency unless the community in which the members live offers opportunities and suggestions for it." Lipman [9] examined forty-six boys and found that all were influenced by some club or gang. Usually such groups are banded together for play and adventure.

The school can help turn the activities of these gangs or clubs into worthwhile channels. It can help boys become interested in the right kind of clubs. There are many such agencies in the community based on gang tendencies of children. These agencies should receive the school's help and cooperation. Many children in the upper grades feel that organizations such as Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, etc. are just for "sissies." This attitude can and should be changed by the school. The popularization of the organizations by means of exhibits, discussions, visits to meetings, etc. will help to build up a better understanding and eventually a right attitude toward them. Even in this sophisticated age the teacher's word bears weight, and if she is enthusiastic about these organizations the pupils are likely to become so too. Good English lessons can be based on interest in the organizations. Boys will readily prepare good talks on a Scout meeting, or write enthusiastically about a hike or camping trip. Children like to tell about their own experiences and usually do it well, especially if they know they have the attention of the entire class.

The school newspaper should devote some space to clubs and other organizations. Once a year an entire edition could be on this subject. Each club could have a reporter to write up the weekly meetings, and an editorial by a Scout leader would perhaps stimulate interest.

At parents' meetings and general assemblies, demonstrations of group activities can be given by the children under the direction of a group leader. These leaders welcome every opportunity to make known the good work their groups are doing, and the children are glad of the chance to demonstrate what they have worked so hard to learn. Those who do not participate in the program are perhaps stimulated to the point of attending the next regular meeting of the group.

Then there is always hero worship, a potent influence in the life of any boy. Baseball heroes or community heroes undoubtedly belonged to an organized club at one time or another. The teacher should take the time and trouble to find out about these things and make use of this knowledge in every possible way.

Utilizing Other Out-of-School Interests

Science. Nearly all children—particularly all boys—are interested in science. Too often this interest is not utilized during school time because the teacher is too busy, or feels that she doesn't know enough about the subject to handle it. All that children need in order to pursue it, however, is a library and time to use it. One morning two boys came in very much excited about a door in one of the public buildings that opened by an "electric eye." They had really studied that door. One of them had run as fast as he could to see if he could get by without being detected. The other had crawled under the beam. They had experimented with it in every way they could think of. Should they be told to forget this experience and settle down to work? No! Here was a science lesson more valuable than hours of formal work. Eventually those boys knew all that could be learned from the school library, the neighborhood library, parents, and friends. They were eager to continue their study of electricity because they knew they had an in-

[9] Lipman, Maurice C., "Some Unorganized Influences," in Chapter III, "Survey of the Community," *The Principal and His Community*, Eleventh Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1932.

terested teacher and classmates. This interest in the science of the world about us should be fostered and utilized in the school, not treated as an out-of-school subject.

Music. The school can often help further children's interest in instrument playing. If recitals or shows are held regularly at school, the problem of getting youngsters to practice at home is sometimes lessened. Often a child who plays well finds his place in the respect of his colleagues through this accomplishment. An example of this occurred last year. Clifford was a timid child who was completely ignored by the other boys because he could not play games with them. Calvin was a wideawake little roughneck who captained the baseball team. One day Calvin came to school with a "violin" he had made. It was a cigar box with an extension nailed on and a hole cut in the top. A bridge had been set up and one string stretched over it. Calvin strummed this string as one would a ukulele. As this crude instrument passed from hand to hand it came to Clifford, who began experimenting with a tune which he produced by moving his fingers as he did on his violin. He could soon play "America." Calvin was thrilled to find that his homemade instrument could produce real music. Clifford's prestige rose immediately and from that time on he was the special guardian of the violin while Calvin played ball. In fact he became every bit as important to Calvin, to the team, and to himself as the best player on the team. School became a happier place because of a skill he had acquired at home.

Hobbies. So much is being said these days about hobbies that very little space will be given to that topic here. Puppets seem to afford one of the most fascinating pastimes. We have never taken the great amount of time necessary to produce a puppet show, but the children have spent hours of free time on them. A show given in the auditorium just before school closed was followed by considerable discussion. One girl told how to make papier-maché heads. The next morning there was an epidemic of puppets. One boy had gone to the library for a book on the subject. Many had made crude heads, others had tried and failed, but they were all enthusiastic to go on. They were shown how to make a dress and how to attach it to the head. When school closed they formed a club to give shows during the summer. The only requisite was one puppet! The situation is expressed very well in the quotation, "The popularization of acquired knowledge promotes new leadership and more rapid advances." Leaders soon developed to organize these shows.[10]

Conclusion

Although this article has touched upon only a few, we see that there are many educational agencies outside of school which teachers should know and use. "Our students are not living in a series of neat compartments, but are dealing with the whole range of life activities in a closely woven web. All teachers should be interested in the unity of this web of life and its steady growth."[11] Before definite rules for educating children in the use of leisure time can be formulated, much research and experimentation must be done. The modern school however, can play an important part in helping its pupils select those activities which characterize persons of culture and character.

[10] One of the best books on puppets and out-of-school activities is Ivah Deering's *The Creative Home*, R. R. Smith, 1930.

[11] "Plays and Hobbies," *The Clearing House*, 10: 6 (February, 1936).

SCIENCE AN INTEGRAL PART OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

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"What makes the airplane stay in the air?" asks the small boy of his father as they watch the biplane leave the ground for a flight over the city. Questions such as this reveal the great interest that even small children show in things about them. For a long time thoughtful educators have recognized the importance of these interests, and have advised repeatedly that the obvious in the child's environment be made more meaningful to him.

Many of these same educators have recognized that small children do not analyze such experiences as involving specialized types of subject matter. Therefore, during the last ten years we have read much regarding unified activity programs, units of work, purposeful enterprises, and the like. The result has been that subject matter boundaries in a measure have bowed to "life situations" in which attention is focused on worthwhile experiences rather than on aspects of the experiences. With the hope that the unifying of the primary school curriculum may continue, I shall try to show the relationship of one body of subject matter, science, to other content subjects and to vital problems of school and out-of-school living.

For an illustration of the relationship of science to life situations, let us turn to real life experience. Two teachers decide to open a tea room. They want to find an old house with "atmosphere" or background. History is certainly involved. The old home must be on or near a main thoroughfare. This factor will involve many aspects of geography—scenic beauties, seasonal climatic conditions, and topography. The house must be equipped with modern conveniences without having the antiquity spoiled. Can you not see science, applied art, and history all involved? We might even consider needed knowledge from other subject matter fields such as English and arithmetic. But so far as the teachers are concerned, they will use subjects very subconsciously, merely as means to the realization of their purpose—the establishing of a tea room.

Since adults use much knowledge in carrying out purposeful activities without classifying the learning under subject headings such as science and history, how can we expect children, bubbling over with interest in the world about them, to be concerned with labeling subject matter involved in their experiences?

In Dr. Mossman's[1] book, *Teaching and Learning in the Elementary School,* we find an illustration of the relationship of subject matter to a study problem:

> The consideration of the raising of wheat and making it into bread is to the child a unified total experience. The study of it, if well rounded out, should include climatic conditions controlling wheat growing, kind of soil and food needed for growing it; the dangers from pests and diseases, and how these can be avoided; the selection of the seed relative to the climatic conditions; the use to be made of the grain; the structure of a wheat seed; the germinating of the seed; labor conditions; the processes of planting, gathering, threshing, and shipping to the flour mill; the processes involved in the making of the wheat into flour, the evolution of these processes, and the different kinds of flour possible through the varied processes; the shipping of the flour to market; selling

[1] Mossman, Lois C., *Principles of Teaching and Learning in the Elementary School,* p. 144. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929.

to the consumer; the price of flour, and its control; making the flour into bread, with its varying possibilities as processes are modified, including methods of mixing, methods of lightening, and methods of shortening; methods of baking and distributing; . . .

The child is interested in these elements, though not necessarily in all at one time. It is doubtful if he says, "Now this study of the yeast plant is elementary science, this process of making flour is industry, this choice of winter or spring wheat variety is agriculture, this fact that Minnesota is a great wheat-growing state is geography." Such thinking in subject categories probably comes, if at all, later. "This is the story of wheat," "More about wheat," "From wheat to bread," are probably his mode of identifying new elements in his experience with wheat.

From these illustrations we can see that science has a place along with such subjects as geography and industrial arts as a source of knowledge to aid in the solution of a problem affecting human living. In fact, it is an integral part of the social studies which, according to one definition, include experiences with the physical world as it affects man's living, and experiences both with social life and with the laws which operate in social living.

Although in some social studies courses the relationships of science to social problems are indicated, a survey of existing courses of study and science textbooks reveals that for the most part, even in the primary grades, science is considered a subject by itself. As may be expected, certain science specialists are not altogether in favor of the integrated program. They fear that science subject matter will be introduced only incidentally—perhaps only accidentally—into units of work.

Herein lie two challenges for the directors of primary education. In the first place, those who plan the unified programs must guide pupils in choosing units of work rich in all kinds of subject matter. Then, as soon as such enterprises are launched, the teachers must see that the pupils are given opportunities to acquire all important learnings. In the second place, even those who believe in integrated programs realize that there are many instances where subject matter should be introduced apart from planned projects. For example, if Alice brings an unusual spring flower to school, her teacher might well spend time in helping the boys and girls learn to appreciate the flowers in their immediate environment, even though the class has chosen to study air travel.

Having caught glimpses of how science learnings may be acquired by pupils, we realize that less has been done to recognize science as one of the social subjects and to introduce science subject matter into units of work than has been done to keep science in a separate compartment by itself. This being the case, a number of definite suggestions for relating science teaching to planned "activities" are here offered by a general practitioner.

Let us assume that during the years spent in the primary schools of a town, the pupils will study the following topics: local history, transportation (water, land, and air), communication, lighting and heating in homes, the fire department, the water system, parks, Dutch life, etc. Since the schools of the town are soundly progressive, the teachers and pupils together will set up objectives for work on various problems. It is not unreasonable to imagine that questions such as the following will arise in the classrooms as the above and other topics are discussed:

Why do we have a dam in the river?
Why doesn't the dam break?
Why are factories located along the river?
What makes the engines in the factories go?
Where do we get our drinking water?
Why do we have a reservoir?
How does the water get into our houses?
How does a pump work?
How do people dig wells?
How can windmills pump water?
Why are dikes wider at the bottom than they are at the top?

How can boats float?
How can men steer sailboats?
How can a pilot steer an ocean liner?
How can submarines go down in the water and come up again?
How can men get out of a submarine that is under water?
How can men breathe in a submarine?
Why do boats have rudders?
How can airplanes fly?
Why does an airplane have a propeller?
Why do aviators use parachutes?
What makes balloons rise?
How can dirigibles fly?
How can balloons come down?
What makes a train go?
How does a steam engine work?
Why are cracks left between the ends of rails?
Why are cracks left in concrete roads?
Which kind of bridge is the best?
How does gas work in automobiles?
Why do telephone wires sag in the summer?
What causes fire?
What kind of fuel burns best?
How does a thermometer work?
How is electricity made?
How many kinds of flowers (or birds, insects, trees) do we have in our parks?
What makes leaves turn red and orange in autumn?
What kinds of fish live in the park pools?

As we review such questions as the above we realize that within the limits of purposeful activities of a grade or department lies a whole science course. In fact, there is every reason for science to be a part of this broader field which aims to interpret life for us.

Having raised questions and having recognized a subject matter field which may yield answers, how will children find the answers? Today the primary school pupils are indeed fortunate to have at their disposal several excellent science textbooks which should be used as reference books by the young seekers after knowledge. (Too seldom are these fine books used in this way!) But, better still, teachers may be amateur scientists and perform simple experiments that will demonstrate to the pupils the answers to puzzling questions. For example, one class wondered how parachutes helped aviators. In order that the children might answer the question for themselves, the teacher borrowed a large handkerchief, then cut four pieces of string about a foot long and tied one end of each string to a corner of the handkerchief. The four loose ends of the string were tied to a small stone about one inch in diameter. All the children but one went into the school yard where they could watch an upstairs window. One child took the improvised parachute with the man (the stone) upstairs. She carried a second man about the size of the first. The latter stone had no parachute. At a given signal from the teacher the child dropped the two stones. The man without the parachute fell speedily. The man with the parachute sailed down with the handkerchief filled out by the air. The children concluded that a parachute is so large and light that the air has a chance to get under it and push up while the weight of a man is pulling it down, so that the force of the aviator's fall is lessened. Many other illustrations might be included if space permitted.

In conclusion, it should be emphasized that through a closer integration of the social studies, including science, the writer in no sense expects to lose sight of the definable educational values from science as set up by scientists. On the contrary, the following attainments will be realized more easily when science is related to chosen purposeful problems and not taught apart from them:

1. The child will acquire ability to utilize the findings of science that have application to his own environment.

2. The child will acquire the ability to interpret the natural phenomena of his environment.

3. The child will develop appreciation of scientific attitudes through an understanding of, and ability to use, some of the methods of study that have been used by creative workers in the field of science.

FUNCTIONAL ADVANTAGES OF MANUSCRIPT WRITING [1]

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As an introduction to this brief presentation of the subject, I wish to quote directly from the Foreword of our own *Manuscript Writing Manual.*

> Acceptance of the manuscript writing method indicates our belief that it is the best and simplest method of introducing children to the writing of the English language.
>
> The obvious disparity in the form of the letters in type and in script retards the writing ability of children in the primary grades. Conversely, because of its similarity to the printed symbols, manuscript writing should be a positive aid in learning to read.
>
> By using the manuscript writing method, we are presenting some of the child's learning difficulties more naturally. We recognize the additional problems presented by the newness of the school environment and the newness of the experience of learning. The best teaching practice avoids complex experiences for the very young.

Manuscript writing is used in grades 1 and 2 for all written expression and in all grades for art lettering. It is the foundation alphabet for illuminated manuscript writing in upper-grade art classes. The cursive alphabet is introduced during the last six weeks of grade 2 and the pupil learns to write his name by the end of the semester. (His signature in cursive writing is required by the Akron Public Library for the borrowing of books.) The summer vacation serves as a learning and forgetting plateau. Pupils who enter school in January make the transition gradually.

It is often difficult for adults to look at school tasks with the young child's perspective. We are inclined to assume that a task is "as simple as two times two." Any complicated procedure, even the magician's most baffling trick, is simple *after* it is understood. Just how simple does "two times two" become when the example is presented, say, in Chinese symbols? No one knows how confusing a cursive alphabet must be to a child of six, or how it taxes his physical ability simply to copy the involved form, not to mention the development of sufficient skill to produce legibility. Not that it can't be done; it is being done in a great many places. But there is an easier way. There is a way which is easier for the child and easier for the teacher. Correctness in writing letters, in one experiment,[2] was six times as frequent in manuscript as in cursive style. Correct words were nearly twelve times as frequent in manuscript as in cursive style.

Since the relationship between the printed symbols and manuscript writing is so close, the use of manuscript writing facilitates the development of reading and writing skills in young children. Confusion in recognition and use is reduced. The learning of one complements the other.[3]

Manuscript writing is learned better with less effort than cursive writing. Children *can* write legibly in manuscript.[4]

According to Freeman's[5] research, the advantages and disadvantages of manuscript

[1] Statement before the National Handwriting Council, in joint session with the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Atlantic City, New Jersey, March 1, 1938.
[2] Hildreth, Gertrude, "Copying Manuscript and Cursive Writing," *Childhood Education*, 13: 127-128 (November, 1936).
[3] Marine, Ida L., "Manuscript Writing," *The Grade Teacher*, 55: 26 (November, 1937).
[4] Hildreth, Gertrude, *op. cit.*
[5] Freeman, Frank N., "An Evaluation of Manuscript Writing," *Elementary School Journal*, 36: 446-455 (February, 1936).

writing as reported by supervisors using it are:

Advantages:

1. Easier to learn, less fatiguing, more legible and neat, easier to teach.
2. Helps in early reading because of similarity of written and printed forms.
3. Enables children to use writing much sooner as form of expression.
4. Pupils like it and take pride in it, appreciate good writing.
5. Helps in spelling.
6. Is an aid to lettering in art and map work.

Disadvantages:

1. Difficulty in changing to cursive.
2. Slow or probably slow.
3. Difficulty in transferring to schools which do not use it.
4. Parents must be convinced.
5. Less rhythmic and encourages finger movement and bad posture.
6. Difficult to read cursive.

The advantages of manuscript writing in primary grades, as reported by Marine[6] are:

1. It is easier to learn, being based on the circle, or a part of the circle, and the straight line.
2. It is more legible because of the absence of loops, joining strokes, and flourishes, all of which tend to confuse young children.
3. Children learn one alphabet for both reading and writing, which is especially valuable when the class is composed largely of foreign-speaking children.
4. It stimulates and facilitates reading.
5. It stimulates and facilitates spelling because the mental image of the written word so closely resembles its printed form as to reduce the number of mistakes.
6. It is neat and hence leads to neatness and orderliness in other work.
7. It meets the need of the child's early desire to write, and lends satisfaction and enjoyment to other activities.
8. It causes less eye strain because the definite combination of the circle and the straight line eliminates acute angles.
9. It decreases physical fatigue in immature muscles so that children with poor muscular control can produce legible results. The lifting of the pencil between strokes lessens muscular fatigue.
10. It requires little drill for improvement since the children can see and understand the formation of the letter forms by the teacher.
11. Speed in manuscript writing in the first grade is equal to, if not greater than, that of cursive writing.
12. Left-handed children in the first grade write better forms and with greater ease in manuscript than in cursive writing due to the elimination of loops and connecting lines.

[6] Marine, Ida L., *op. cit.*

The manuscript alphabet for use in the Akron public schools has been developed to give young children a practical tool for written expression during a two-year period when ease of learning and facility of use are of first consideration. Since cursive writing will replace manuscript writing at the beginning of the third grade, our manuscript alphabet recognizes the needs, level of maturation, and results to be achieved by first and second grade children. Simplicity, ease of learning, and facility in teaching were the guiding principles in its development. The alphabet is based upon straight lines and circles and allows children of this level of maturation to acquire the use of this tool with satisfaction to themselves and their teachers. Variations of letter forms with joining strokes, shadings, and individuality may be learned later when body muscles have reached a sufficient level of coordination.

After more than a decade of observation, experimentation, scientific investigation and research, authorities in the field of penmanship are fairly well agreed upon the relative merits of manuscript and cursive writing and the place of each in the curriculum. Manuscript writing has been found superior for younger children, but cursive writing is recommended for older children and adults. The cursive alphabet should be presented during the last six weeks of grade 2 so that, beginning in grade 3, it may become the common means of written expression.

THE CLEARING HOUSE

EVANGELINE

A Unit in the Core Curriculum for the Eighth Grade

Our high school boys and girls like to sing; they like to act; they like to dance; they like to read a good story. Is it any wonder that the dramatic presentation at Thanksgiving of "Evangeline," a cantata by Noble Cain, was an activity rich in learnings for the pupils of the eighth grade? Although the members of the group had had no school music experience prior to the opening of the school year, eager interest followed the introduction of the cantata during the regular class period. The music, written for soprano and alto voices, motivated the skill of two-part singing. Questions arose: What voices should be assigned to the alto part? Why? What score should each voice follow? What score should the accompanist follow? Why the difference between the clefs? Does the music intensify the words? The mood?

It was interesting to note how quickly the children recognized the music as a means of intensifying the mood and of increasing appreciations, not only of the poem but of the better class of music. It was also evident that to give pleasure to an audience one must understand and use good tone quality. Discussion of how this quality might be produced brought out the following necessary points: head tones, correct enunciation and pronunciation, blending of voices, and interpretation of thought.

Having found the poem in their literature texts, they asked to study it. "Let us act part of it," one pupil suggested. Here was an opportunity which the teacher could not overlook—not the opportunity of teaching *Evangeline,* but of using the poem with its related activities as a means of rich experiences for the class.

One member raised the question, "We can't speak lines on the stage while the chorus is singing; what shall we do?" A lively discussion followed. Some were in favor of producing certain scenes either before or after the chorus had sung the appropriate music. Others objected. The group finally decided that any speaking would mar the effect of the music and that the scenes selected for dramatization should be in pantomime. A reader might add certain lines needed if these were not in the music score. The next step was the reading of the poem. Some expressed their difficulty in reading poetry. A short explanation of the use of the poetic form in early literature was given by the teacher. Short selections with varied rhythm patterns were read by members of the class. The teacher read a number of poems illustrating the melody of words, such as "The Ode," by Arthur O'Shaughnessy; "Words," by Anna Hempstead Branch; "The Bugle Song," by Tennyson; and "To a Skylark," by Shelley.

The members of the class learned that if they wished to derive pleasure from the reading of *Evangeline,* they must be able to harmonize their voices with the thought expressed; that if the correct interpretation was to be given, an understanding of words and characters would be necessary. Therefore, some points in history were learned; French customs and manners were studied; new

words became a part of the vocabulary; passages, beautiful in melody and imagery, were read aloud; the teacher of French was called in frequently to give the group expressions which school children of Grand-Pré might have used and to teach French songs which Evangeline might have sung as a child. The classroom assumed a French atmosphere with post cards, pictures, posters, and ornaments indicative of French life. Stories of the French settlement in Louisiana were reproduced. Newspaper and magazine pictures and clippings filled the bulletin boards.

The greatest interest was shown in the preparation for the dramatic production as a background for the music. By this time the whole project was being discussed in the halls, on the campus, and on the street. As the play was read, definite passages were selected for pantomime. Some scenes were rejected because they were more suited to the photoplay than to the stage. In the discussion some of the differences in the written story, the stage play, and the photoplay became evident to the pupils.

Groups were formed according to individual wishes. One group designed and constructed miniature stage settings; another group worked with the home economics teacher in designing costumes and in making models for the production. A third group wrote a dramatization of the parts selected. Still another group prepared notices for the daily school bulletin and for the newspaper. Pupils from other classes were called to take part in the pantomime and in the French folk dances taught by Miss Lynch during the physical education period.

In the final production a group of children from the elementary school, in quaint costumes, played in the street and followed Father Felician. Upper classmen aided the group in arranging for tickets and programs, in renting costumes, in obtaining beautiful lighting effects, and in securing needed properties. A courtesy committee under the direction of several teachers met and discussed ways in which the pleasure of the guests for the evening might be increased and later met the guests as they arrived.

A number of interesting questions arose during the progress of the unit. Would it be appropriate for the children in the dances to use the modern prints in their costumes? Why not? (Some children grew interested in the history of weaving and block printing.) Have any modern stories been written with a theme similar to that of *Evangeline?* What impressions should a reader gain of each character? Why can this impression be given better on the stage? Why is music played in connection with so many pictures? How does the music help you in your enjoyment of *Evangeline?* What parts could be well depicted in a photoplay, but could not be used on the stage? What cast would you select for a motion picture production of *Evangeline?*

Promptness in coming to rehearsals outside of class hours was stressed as a courtesy to the entire group and to the directors. One girl from an upper class with an important solo part made another engagement and missed a necessary rehearsal. Her solo part was given to another; and when she came to the next practice, she was asked to sing with the group. We watched anxiously her reaction. Disappointment, tears, anger—all were evident. A little while behind the scenes, and then she came out, willing to take a place with the group. Such action meant a real triumph for the girl and a wholesome lesson for the others.

Does the class know and love the poem? Yes, but more than that, the poem has become incorporated as a bit of beauty in their lives, and the music, which was the real basis of integration, will always be a source of joy.

Further details were included in the outline record and in the adapting of the poem for pantomime during the singing and the reading.

The following teachers assisted in the activities of the unit: Miss Helen Lynch, Health and Physical Education; Miss Beatrice T. Olson, Home Economics; Miss Eula Snider, Librarian; Dr. J. D. Haygood, French; Mr. Jack Bohannon, Industrial Arts; Mr. W. L. Goette, Science; and Mr. J. D. Copeland, Business.

Margaret W. Boutelle, English
Cleva J. Carson, Music
P. K. Yonge, Laboratory School
University of Florida
Gainesville, Fla.

HAWAIIAN UNIT

The children of the Martin Hall Laboratory School choose the units or activities that they would like to study. The staff feels that when children can choose their activities they enjoy the work much more and enter into the learning process more wholeheartedly. After participating in a thoroughgoing exploration period, the children recently decided to study Hawaii.

Materials of interest on the Hawaiian Islands were found in some thirty books, which were checked out of the library and placed in a bookcase at the rear of the classroom. The children were allowed to use these books, whenever they wished, throughout the unit. They experienced much enjoyment in reading story books and studying for information. The first three weeks were spent in studying and reading to gain an extensive background of information for the unit. After the first week, reports were given during the social studies period on the most interesting items covered in the reading. Some of these reports were of a general nature in regard to the Islands; others dealt with such subjects as various types of houses, customs and manners, industries, and sports of Hawaii.

Books were also reviewed by some of the children. One which they found very interesting and full of information was *Umi,* the story of a little Hawaiian boy. When most of the reports had been given, the class was reminded that the activity period was to begin soon and each child was urged to think of some activity in which he or she would like to take part. After the orientation or background period the activity period was begun.

Each member of the class gave his suggestion for an activity to the chairman selected by the class. Many suggestions were submitted—such as appliqué work, wall-hanging, painting a screen, play, making maps, landsleds, canoes, surfboards, grass huts, picture books, constructing a moving picture, etc. The class was then divided into groups by the chairman, to work out several of these activities. Each group elected a chairman of its own to take charge, to receive suggestions, to see that plans were made and work done efficiently, and to see that time was not wasted. Several days were needed for the careful planning of the procedure for their activities, and to get the plans unified and organized. Then the children went to work, each feeling wholly responsible for his part in the activity of the particular group to which he belonged. Little supervision was required, though it was necessary for the teachers to give helpful suggestions to the different groups. After the activity project was finished, by way of summary the groups and the individuals explained to the entire class the activities in which they had participated. Much valuable and useful information was to be found in these summaries.

Types of Activity

Screen. A group of girls decided to paint a screen, picturing some Hawaiian scene. Each girl, with the help of the supervising chairman, planned a picture. The picture having the most unity of organization and giving the most information or telling the best or most complete story was chosen for

the screen painting. All the girls in the group worked on the screen, each being responsible for a certain part. Calsomine was the medium used for painting the scene. It was very well done, and colorful too. The screen now stands in the sixth grade activity room with other colorful and interesting scenes done in other activities.

Play. One group chose to dramatize a story of a typical Hawaiian family and their home. Through information gained from various reports given at the beginning of the unit, they started to make plans. Three girls wrote the play, checking carefully for mistakes in form and content. Then they asked different members of the class to help them give the play. Everyone was willing to help in some way. There was no difficulty in finding people for the cast. The children practiced the play during the class period until they thought it was perfected enough to present before an audience. Much knowledge was gained, both by the cast and by the audience, as to customs and manners of the Hawaiians, for the play was based on actual facts.

Wall-hanging. Another group, after electing a chairman, began to work on plans for a wall-hanging depicting a scene of Hawaiian life. Each girl sketched and submitted a scene to the group. Various ideas —good ones too—were obtained from these plans, and were unified and used in the final plan. Two yards of bleached muslin was brought from the girls' homes and the scenes were painted on with crayon. After the art work was finished, the wall-hanging was neatly hemmed and the painting pressed between papers with a warm iron to set the color.

Appliqué. One girl chose appliqué as her contribution to the activities program. She sketched her plan carefully, then cut paper patterns for her scene, which consisted of a Hawaiian cottage, palm trees, and a taro patch. She obtained from her mother pieces of cloth of various colors, as brown for tree trunks, green for leaves, etc., and neatly appliquéd the design on a background of unbleached muslin.

Surfboard and landsled. A group of boys became quite interested in the sports of the Hawaiian Islands and decided to make these the subject of their contributions to the activities program. They made good use of reference books in finding out how to make various articles, such as a surfboard and landsled. The articles were then constructed of wood obtained from home.

Outcomes

These group problems gave the children an opportunity to grow as they saw the need and felt an urge to engage in the various activities. The problems chosen gave them opportunity for group participation and individual and group experiences, also the much needed social contact. During the progress of these activities, each child was put to a test. At some time or other he or she was confronted with problems, some of them involving social conflicts, and the manner in which he met these situations was determined by his attitudes—his endurance, patience, sympathy, helpfulness, tolerance, and understanding.

Charlotte C. Lang
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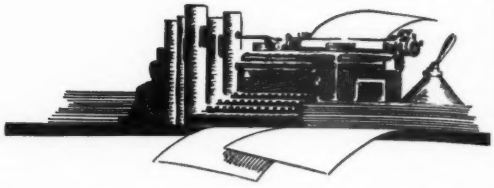
EDITORIAL COMMENT



THE SUPERVISOR'S RESPONSIBILITY

Educational publications have given much space to suggestions on how to make supervision scientific, creative, democratic, and cooperative. However, in order to be effective, supervision must concern itself with something more than desirable techniques. If supervision is to be worth its cost, if it is to be palatable to teachers, it must go deeper into the instructional program and find its objectives in the same curriculum principles which the teacher is attempting to carry out in her classroom. The bases for the supervisory program can be found only in the basic principles that underlie the curriculum of the modern school.

These principles are invariably stated in the opening pages of the newer curriculum bulletins, guides, and courses of study. They are objectives for supervisors, quite as much as for curriculum committees and for teachers. The value of supervision would be more discernible if supervisors would give up their concern for minutiæ and for techniques and turn to working shoulder to shoulder with teachers in interpreting and putting into action these principles. Techniques would take care of themselves.

One rather commonly accepted curriculum principle which will illustrate the challenge which the modern curriculum offers supervisors is:

"The instructional program should develop in youth those abilities which will enable them to meet with increasing effectiveness both the personal and the community problems which arise in a democratic form of living."

This principle is either implied or stated in some form in practically all modern curriculum programs. It offers a challenge to supervisors. What can supervisors do to aid teachers in interpreting and putting this principle into action? It implies that school must be made an attractive, homelike place in which teachers and pupils practice normal living. It suggests that human relations must be such that there can be free exchange of ideas, plans, and experiences. It infers that lifelike experiences must be given pupils as a part of classroom activities. It indicates that the school will be extended into the community. It suggests that teaching techniques be such that all pupils will have repeated experiences in planning classroom activities as well as in evaluating the results of their own work. It makes obsolete the practice of the teacher being the dictator in the classroom; the principal, the dictator in the building; and the supervisor, the dictator at large.

Each of the ten or more principles commonly stated as basic to the curriculum of the modern school offers similar challenges to supervision. Supervisors must be able to analyze each of these principles and discover the implications of each for their work. With this interpretation of each principle at hand, will supervisors be able to share with the teachers the responsibility of putting the modern curriculum into action or will many of them continue to concern themselves with techniques of supervision and with minutiæ of administration? PRUDENCE CUTRIGHT.

The great thing in this world is not so much where we are, but in what direction we are moving.—O. W. Holmes.

RIDING "HOBBIES"

We live in a period of excessively rapid change. Indeed, in some quarters there seems to be a mania for change. Some professors of education are "riding hobbies" to the limit. They go to extremes. They seem to delight in nothing so much as in shocking workers in the schools. They describe a situation in teaching which might have happened in a few instances forty years ago, and imply that it is the common practice in the schools today. Some such instances may still be found, though they are far from being the common practice at the present time. So they build up a "straw man" and proceed to "shoot it full of holes." If discussing the new psychology, they pour it on so thick that it is sickening. When alleged science violates common sense, it is a good time to be "from Missouri." If discussing the "curriculum," they represent the present one as 99 44/100 per cent wrong. They say we need a complete "new deal." If it is administration, supervision, or teaching which is being discussed, the present situation has not a single redeeming feature. If pupils are quiet and deliberative, they should be more animated and "active." If they are enthusiastically active, they are building a case of "nerves" which will wreck their chances of satisfactory adjustment to the complexities, distractions, and highly stimulating qualities of modern life. They need periods of relaxation for "mental health." If a teacher is "teaching a subject," she should be "teaching the child." How a teacher may teach a child without teaching him *something*, is not explained.

It seems to be the favorite pastime of these professors to ridicule the "traditional" school. They have no respect for the great teachers who taught in the "traditional" school and were the pioneers who cleared the way for the advance of modern education. Which one of us, with their lights, would have done better? We owe them respect, appreciation, and gratitude—not ridicule. We are thankful that there are some professors of education who are not of this type; who are becomingly modest, and are adequately appreciative of the splendid achievements of the past.

We realize that times and customs change, but the needed adjustments can be made without exaggerated and unwarranted claptrap. By all means, we should give new proposals their just due, but we should not overdo it. We need an occasional "grain of salt," not only to make them palatable, but to make them acceptable. Let us remember also that the history of educational research shows that it is unwise to accept the results of the first "scientific experiment" in a field as conclusive, or even the first few such experiments. Then, too, the conditions under which "scientific experiments" are set up would bear careful watching. Certain fundamental assumptions upon which the experiment is based are often questionable.

Educational progress owes much to the efforts of "radicals." This must be admitted. But there is a "testing and proving" period before new proposals are accepted, and this period is of great importance. It cannot be skipped. We should be in a great predicament if we accepted without question the proposals of even our admittedly most advanced thinkers. In these days of rapid change and high speed, there is an imperative demand for the retention of a desirable stability. "Slow and careful" is not a bad motto to guide us.

F. M. Underwood.

CHARLES HUBBARD JUDD

One of the most widely known and highly respected educators of our day is Dr. Charles H. Judd. He has now retired from active service as head of the Department of Education at Chicago University.

Dr. Judd has been and is one of our fore-

most thinkers and one of our most effective speakers in the field of education in this country. He has served on many prominent committees, yearbook commissions, and policy-forming bodies. His influence on American education has been profound. He gives the newer procedures and proposals a fair and just consideration, but is never stampeded by some proposed panacea. He insists that our procedures be scientifically justified. He is one of the most outstanding leaders in the "scientific movement" in education. He is liberally progressive, but retains an appreciation of the contributions of older movements. He insists that new movements become integrated with the old, modifying but not destroying that which the most able minds of the past have contributed to educational theory. His philosophy seems to be the "middle-of-the-road" variety which, it would seem, gives most promise of being a safe and sane way to sound progress.

Thousands of students, teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents have been inspired and helped by his brilliant and stimulating addresses on the great educational issues of the day. For thirty years he has been in the forefront of the battle for good schools, and has played a very prominent role in the advancement of the educational frontier in this country during this time. He has made so many speeches at educational conventions and meetings throughout the country that it would seem impossible that they all could have been on a high plane. And yet we would search in vain for a speech which was not of this quality.

In any compiled list of the ten greatest names in American education during the past century, Dr. Judd's would be included.

Who will take his place? His successor has not appeared as yet on the horizon of American education. We hope that we may continue to have this outstanding leader with us for many years to come.

F. M. UNDERWOOD.

The most important subject in a vocational school is language.—Charles H. Judd.

To the Members

THE WINTER MEETING

The program of our Department at Cleveland, February 26-March 1, in connection with the meeting of the American Association of School Administrators, is nearing completion. The Monday morning session is arranged as three group discussions to be held simultaneously:

I. New Approaches to In-Service Education of Teachers
II. Helping Children in the Use of Radio, Movies, and Newspaper
III. Looking to the Future in Rural Education

Group III is a joint meeting with the Department of Rural Education. A special section meeting has also been arranged for Monday morning in the interests of the Supervisors of Student Teaching. This organization is an affiliated section of the Department. The topic for discussion will be "Social Orientation as an Objective in Teacher Education."

There will be three general sessions, on Monday and Tuesday afternoons and on Wednesday morning. On Monday Dr. Willard C. Olson will present "Research Studies in the Growth of the Child as a Whole," and Dr. Daniel A. Prescott will discuss "The Relation Between the Concept of Need and Research in Human Growth and Development." The data presented at this meeting will form the basis of discussion on Wednesday morning, "Implications of Research in the Growth of the Child as a Whole." Joining with us in this session will be the Society for Curriculum Study, the Department of Elementary School Principals, and the National Council of Childhood Education. Representatives of these organizations will present reports on (a) The Curriculum, (b) School Organization and Administration, and (c) Growth Records and Reports.

Of special interest to teachers should be the panel discussion on Tuesday morning, when Dr. Alice Keliher and a group of young teachers will discuss "The Human Aspects of Teaching."

The Luncheon

The annual luncheon will be held Wednesday noon at the Hollenden Hotel. Dr. James F. Hosic, who has contributed so much to the Department throughout its history, will be the guest speaker. He has chosen for his topic, "The Case for Supervision." Special guests will include the past presidents of the Department. This is an occasion which no member attending the convention will want to miss. Be sure to make your reservations early.

Business Meetings

The business meeting of the Department will be held immediately following the general session on Tuesday afternoon. Three important matters will be considered: (1) the long-time program of the Department, including suggestions from members for working committees and summer conferences; (2) amendments to the constitution (presented in this issue for your consideration) to be voted upon; (3) the election of six members of the Board of Directors (see page 87 of the November issue). If the members are to assume responsibility for direction of the affairs of the Department, attendance at the annual business meeting is imperative.

The Board of Directors will be in session on Sunday afternoon from four to six o'clock and again on Tuesday morning. You are welcome to sit in at these meetings.

A breakfast meeting of the Promotion

Committee is scheduled for Tuesday morning.

The Department headquarters will be at the Hotel Hollenden. Be sure to come to the registration room as soon as possible after arrival in Cleveland.

Edith M. Bader

PRESIDENT.

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS

It is always well for the members of any organized group, be it large or small, to take time every so often to read with care the articles and by-laws of its constitution. An opportunity to do this is offered to you in this issue.

To make provision for improved functioning of an organization, certain changes in its constitution are sometimes desirable. The officers and directors of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction wish to present to you at this time certain amendments which they believe will be helpful in the administration of the affairs of the Department in the future. In order that the proposed amendments may be given due consideration by the members and be voted on at the next annual meeting, in accordance with Articles IX and X, the constitution is printed in full, with the suggested omissions enclosed in brackets and the additions indicated by italic type. Your comments are invited.

MARY F. HAZELL
Executive Secretary.

THE CONSTITUTION

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERVISORS AND DIRECTORS OF INSTRUCTION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

ARTICLE I

NAME.—The name of this organization shall be The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association of the United States.

ARTICLE II

OBJECT.—The object of the Department shall be the improvement of supervision and teaching.

ARTICLE III

MEMBERSHIP.—Section 1. There shall be two classes of members: active and honorary.

Sec. 2. Any person who is desirous of promoting the interests of the Department and sharing in the results of its work shall be eligible to membership and may become a member by paying the annual dues, provided his application for membership shall have been approved by the Executive Committee of the Department. All members of the Department must also be members of the National Education Association of the United States.

Sec. 3. Active members shall be entitled to vote, to hold office, to participate in discussion, and to receive [all the publications] *the Journal and Yearbook* of the Department.

Sec. 4. Honorary members shall be entitled to all the privileges of active members, with the exception of voting and holding office, but shall be exempt from the payment of dues. A person may be elected to honorary membership by vote of the Department at the annual meeting on nomination by the Executive Committee.

Sec. 5. The annual dues of active members shall be four dollars.

ARTICLE IV

OFFICERS AND DIRECTORS.—Section 1. The officers of this Department shall be president, first vice-president, second vice-president, field secretary, and executive committee.

Sec. 2. The Executive Committee shall consist of the president, the first vice-president, the second vice-president, the field secretary, and three other active members of the Department.

Sec. 3. The president and vice-presidents shall serve for a term of one year, the field secretary for three years, and the other members of the Executive Committee for three years, one to be elected each year.

Sec. 4. The Executive Committee shall have active charge of the affairs of the Department, subject to the approval of the Board of Directors, such as the appointment of an Executive Secretary, and like matters.

Sec. 5. The Board of Directors shall constitute the governing body of the Department. It shall consist of fifteen members at large,

whose term of office shall be three years, five to be elected each year at the annual meeting in such manner as the by-laws of the Department may determine, together with representatives *of sections and* of state and district associations of supervisors and directors of instruction, as hereinafter provided.

Sec. 6. The Board of Directors shall elect from their own number the officers of the Department, who shall serve also in like capacity as the officers of the Board. The Board shall be the custodian of the property of the Department, shall have power to make contracts, and shall make an annual financial report to the Department.

Article V

Sections.—In order to provide for the special interests of different types or classes of supervisors, the Department shall maintain sections and arrange for section meetings. Applications for sections shall be made to the Board of Directors and, if approved by the Board, shall be submitted by it to the annual meeting for confirmation. Sections may be discontinued in the same way.

Affiliated sections may elect representative members of the Board of Directors for the same length of term and with the same duties and privileges as the members at large, subject to the following conditions: (a) Representation shall be on the basis of one member of the Board of Directors for each fifty members, or major fraction thereof, of the section to be represented. (b) In estimating such membership for the purpose of representation, only persons who are bona fide members of the National Education Association and of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction shall be counted. (c) Representative members of the Board of Directors shall bear such credentials as the by-laws of the Department may determine.

Article VI

State and District Associations.—State and district associations of supervisors and directors of instruction may elect members of the Board of Directors of the Department to serve for the same length of term and with the same duties and privileges as the members elected by the Department itself, subject to the following conditions and specifications: [(a) The group seeking representation must be certified by the officers of the state education association as being a permanent part of that organization.] (*a*) Representation shall be on the basis of one member of the Board of Directors of the Department for each *fifty* members of the group to be represented, or major fraction thereof. (*b*) In estimating such membership for the purpose of representation, only persons who are bona fide members of the National Education Association, [the state education association concerned,] and of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction shall be counted. (*c*) Any state may have state-wide representation or district representation but not both, and in estimating membership for representation no person shall be counted twice. (*d*) Representative members of the Board of Directors shall bear such credentials as the by-laws of the Department may determine.

Article VII

Meetings.—The Department shall hold two regular meetings each year, one *in the summer* in connection with the annual meeting of the National Education Association and the other *in the winter* [in connection with the annual meeting of the American Association of School Administrators]. Special meetings may be called by the Executive Committee. The annual meeting for the election of officers, presentation of reports, and transaction of any other business requiring official action by the Department or by the Board of Directors shall be the regular meeting designated for these purposes in the by-laws of the Department.

Article VIII

Publications.—The Department shall publish a journal and such supplements and reports as the Executive Committee may direct.

Article IX

Amendments.—This constitution may be amended at any annual meeting for the transaction of official business by a vote of two-thirds of the active members present, provided notice of proposed amendment has been given in the journal of the Department at least three months previous and provided further that nothing in the proposed amendment shall conflict with the Act of Incorporation or the by-laws of the National Education Association.

Article X

By-Laws.—Details of the activities of the Department shall be regulated by the by-laws. These may be amended at any annual meeting

for the transaction of official business by a majority vote of the members present, provided notice has been given three months in advance.

By-Laws

Annual Meeting.—The regular meeting, to be known as the annual meeting, for the election of officers and members of the Board of Directors and for the transaction of business shall be that held *in the winter* [in connection with the annual meeting of the American Association of School Administrators] provided that proposals may be made and agreed upon at the summer meeting, needing only to be confirmed at the annual meeting.

Elections.—Unless otherwise ordered by the Department, nominations of officers of the Department and members at large of the Board of Directors shall be made by a committee chosen by the Executive Committee of the Department.

Vacancies.—*In case a vacancy occurs among the members at large on the Board of Directors, the Executive Committee shall appoint a qualified person to serve until the next annual meeting, when the appointment shall be confirmed or a new director elected in accordance with these by-laws to serve for the remainder of the unexpired term.*

Quorum.—Twenty-five active members of the Department shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business. Nine members of the Board of Directors shall constitute a quorum of that body.

Credentials.—The credentials of representative members of the Board of Directors shall be signed by the president or secretary of the *section or of the* state or district organization which they seek to represent, and shall be presented to the Executive Committee for approval.

Committees.—Standing committees of the Department may be appointed by the Executive Committee, which shall have general oversight and direction of all such committees.

Publications.—The publications of the Department shall be in charge of the Executive Committee, subject to such general policies as the Board of Directors may adopt.

Expenditures.—The funds of the Department shall be disbursed only in accordance with annual budgets adopted by the Board of Directors. *The transfer of unused balances from one item in the budget to another shall be at the discretion of the Executive Committee.* The Executive Secretary shall receive and disburse the funds of the Department and make an annual accounting to the Board of Directors under the direction of the Executive Committee, which shall be responsible for proper auditing of accounts.

Membership Year.—The period of membership of each person who joins the Department and pays the annual dues shall be twelve calendar months, counting from the first day of the month in which the person is accepted as a member. Members shall be entitled to receive only those publications of the Department that appear within the year for which their annual dues are paid.

BRIEF NOTES FROM HEADQUARTERS

The Yearbook Committee and your Executive Secretary have tried very hard to complete the Eleventh Yearbook, *Cooperation: Principles and Practices,* so that it might be distributed to members this month. Unforeseen delays have occurred, however, and we must therefore ask your patience a little longer. The book should be in your hands before the end of January. We are publishing this notice so that you will not be wondering whether your copy has been lost in the mail.

Dr. Burton's article in the October issue, "A New Definition of the Functions of Supervision," has proved so popular that we have had reprints made. These may be secured from the headquarters office at 5 cents a copy.

A treat is in store for you next month. Our January issue is a special number on "Radio in Education," edited by Dr. I. Keith Tyler of the Ohio State University, director of the study, "Evaluation of School Broadcasts," sponsored by the Federal Radio Education Committee of the Federal Communications Commission. The articles in this special number will be available later as a separate pamphlet. Look for further announcement next month.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Editor, JULIA L. HAHN

[Contributions to this section will be welcomed.]

ILLUSTRATED REPORT

SPRINGFIELD, MISSOURI

An unusually attractive publication has recently come to our attention. It is a report by Superintendent H. P. Study of the Springfield, Missouri, public schools to the citizens of that city, published by authority of the Board of Education. Instead of giving cold statistics, he and his co-workers have prepared as beautiful and interesting a bulletin as we have seen for many a day. It is called *Education for Living in a Democracy.*

Written in simple and forceful style, it presents excellent descriptions of work from kindergarten through the high school, illustrated by photographs of children's activities. The report discusses in turn "Why Our Schools are Interested in the Problem of Making Democracy Work Better," "The Environment in Which Learning Takes Place," "What Our Schools are Doing to Aid in Making Democracy Work Better," and finally asks and answers the question, "What Is It All About?" We wish that this publication might be readily available for examination by all teachers and supervisors.

Virgil M. Hardin, principal of Reed and Pipkin Junior High Schools, was chairman of the committee which prepared the report. Members were Miss Alice Pittman, director of supervision, D. C. Rucker, curriculum director, J. D. Hull, principal of the Senior High School, and C. F. McCormack, principal of Jarrett Junior High School. The work was done under the personal supervision of Superintendent Study.

DISCUSSION GROUPS

GREELEY, COLORADO

Miss Hattie F. Yardley, Director of Instruction in the Greeley, Colorado, public schools, reports the activities of a teacher group in her city. Early in the school year of 1936-37 the teachers of Washington School held several informal meetings to discuss problems of primary grades. Teachers of two small outlying schools became interested and were asked to join the group. Later a club was formed and a definite program was carried out.

Last year's program included discussions of reading, arithmetic, art, music, recreational library reading, and health. Various teachers in the group led the discussions, using illustrations and classroom work to bring out important ideas. A pot-luck supper preceding each meeting contributed greatly to good fellowship.

When one teacher moved to another building, she carried the idea with her and was able to interest other teachers in forming a second discussion group. Both groups are meeting again this school year, and more teachers are becoming interested. Each group has had the opportunity of hearing a college teacher who is an expert in remedial reading.

CONFERENCES AND TRIPS

Virginia

Last year the supervisors of Virginia were organized into regional groups which met once each month for the purpose of studying pertinent problems. The Tidewater Regional Group has planned to continue these monthly meetings this year with headquarters in the Norfolk County Board of Education office. Three definite objectives for the year have been set up: first, to study ways and means for guiding teachers in acquiring a better understanding of children; second, to establish an exchange bureau of materials for supervisors; third, to enrich and enlarge the supervisor's social and cultural background through contact with people and institutions within their own communities.

At the November meeting the morning was given over to a discussion of the problem selected for study. At this time Dr. Mildred English, Director of the Training School, Milledgeville, Georgia, talked on "Cooperative Child, Teacher and Supervisory Planning." Dr. Ruth Henderson of the State Department of Education of Virginia led a discussion of the address and also brought information on the work throughout the state.

The morning session was followed by a luncheon in honor of Dr. English in one of Norfolk's old homes now open to the public. In the afternoon Mrs. J. J. McCormick, one of the organizers and founders of the Virginia Poetry Society, gave an hour of readings from the Virginia poets, many of whom were unknown to some of the group.

The Tidewater Group felt that this meeting was helping the group develop all three objectives set up in October.

Indiana

Miss Blanche E. Fuqua, Director of Instruction in the Terre Haute public schools, reports that for the past ten years the supervisors of Indiana have had annual two-day study conferences, meeting in various cities throughout the state. In October, 1938, this group of supervisors met in Indianapolis to discuss the theme, "Cooperation." Miss Nellie C. Morrison, elementary supervisor in Muncie, led the discussion of this topic. Miss Morrison is a member of the 1938 Yearbook Committee of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction which prepared the Eleventh Yearbook, *Cooperation: Principles and Practices.*

Tennessee

Mr. R. Lee Thomas, state supervisor of elementary schools in Tennessee, tells us that the teachers of Hamilton County are taking a series of conservation trips through the state as a part of their in-service training. They have already made two trips: one through Cherokee National Forest and one to Fall Creek Falls, Standing Stone Park, and Pickett Forest.

RECREATION

Kingsport, Tennessee

Miss Blanche Kennedy, general supervisor of elementary schools in Kingsport, Tennessee, reports as follows concerning recreational activities of teachers led by Miss Clarice Runyan, physical education supervisor, and Miss Edwina Heely, Miss Frances Mays, and Miss Elizabeth Clark, teachers of physical education:

> After a very stirring lecture on "Mental Health" at one of our group meetings, the teachers of physical education in the grades were appointed as a committee to plan for a "play" night in a centrally located gymnasium. The principal of the building cooperated in helping us secure materials and equipment. We meet each Thursday from 7:00 to 8:00 P. M. At first the attendance ranged from five to fifteen persons, but interest increased and more equipment was secured. Plans were then made to include the junior high school and senior high school teachers, as well as teachers from neighboring communities. The number participating now averages twenty-five or more. The activities

consist of deck tennis, shuffleboard, basketball, ping-pong, tap dancing, ballroom dancing, badminton, and volley ball.

Some gratifying results are more diversified interests, better acquaintance of one group with another, and a development of the ability to relax and play.

Highland Park, Illinois

Teachers play also in Highland Park, Illinois. R. H. Price, Superintendent of District 107, intrigues us with accounts of fireside dinners, beach parties amid the fall colorings of the trees along the shore of Lake Michigan, a mid-winter international costume party with Italian, German, and Swedish costumes and entertainment and appropriate foods, and a spring crab-apple and hawthorne blossom party in the woods. "A serious lecture is sometimes included," adds Mr. Price.

Bakersfield, California

The City Teachers' Orchestra, comprised of teachers of the Bakersfield City Schools, continues to grow both in quantity and in quality. Besides furnishing recreational activities for the members and a pleasant social group, the orchestra has begun to function extensively for the enjoyment of others. It participates in radio broadcasts and entertains community groups. The musical group meets one evening each week for practice.

The work has been thoroughly supported by the music department and is now under the leadership of Mr. Allan Lambourne, instrumental music instructor. Most of the credit for the encouragement, inspiration, and staunch backing that has made the orchestra such a success is due Superintendent Lawrence E. Chenoweth, who speaks often of the universal language of music and who recognizes the value of such activities in personality development as well as community understanding.

RURAL SCHOOL APPRAISAL

New Mexico

Mr. Ulrich R. Beeson, state director of rural and elementary education at Santa Fé, New Mexico, reports that a score card or appraisal sheet has been devised to assist county boards and county superintendents in New Mexico.

In 1930, Mrs. Grace Corrigan and Mr. Beeson conferred at length upon the proper steps to take to launch a satisfactory statewide rural school appraisal. They felt that administrators needed to have more definite purposes and aims in their plans for improvement of school grounds, school buildings, equipment, etc. With the coming of federal aid through W. P. A. assistance to New Mexico, new school buildings were erected in a number of counties. Opportunities for beautifying school grounds and providing attractive and sanitary conditions presented themselves. Better school equipment was made possible and a program for the improvement of instruction was launched with the aid of Mr. Rodgers, state superintendent, during his first term of office. Assistance was given through the General Education Board and state funds.

In connection with the scoring program the State Department of Education, through its Division of Rural and Elementary Education, is now contemplating a state-wide library extension service for the specific benefit of students and teachers of the elementary and secondary schools of New Mexico. Free textbooks for all elementary school children have already been provided. These have included a number of first-class supplementary readers for the grade school children. Under proposed legislation they hope to expand this program with a thoroughgoing state-wide library program.

RESEARCH IN REVIEW

Editor, MANLEY E. IRWIN

[The Board of Editors welcomes contributions of research abstracts and reviews which will be of interest to our readers.]

YOUTH TELL THEIR STORY. Howard M. Bell. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938. 273 p. $1.50.

During the last decade the so-called youth problem has received considerable attention as judged by the number of articles and books published on the topic. The youth problem is not confined to the United States but is recognized as an important one in all of the civilized countries of the world. In the United States many attempts have been made by local communities and organizations to give a picture of the situation as it exists in that community. Records on file in the schools, in superintendents' offices, and in community centers have been used to find out the status of youth. It was not, however, until the American Youth Committee, under the auspices of the American Council on Education, undertook a study of youth that information has been available which gives a complete picture of the conditions and status of youth as the young people themselves see it.

The American Youth Committee conducted its study in Maryland, where 13,528 individuals between the ages of 16 and 24 were interviewed on questions regarding school, employment, home life, health, recreation, church affiliation, and attitudes toward certain social problems. The findings of the committee are rather startling when one considers that this sampling is perhaps typical of that for the United States as a whole. The Committee does not contend that the pupils interviewed constitute a perfectly representative sampling of America's twenty million youth, but the care with which the sampling was made leads one to feel that it is quite representative of the conditions found in other parts of the country.

The percentage of persons in this sampling in each age group, sex, marital status, race, farm and urban distribution, native and foreign parentage, and school status compares favorably with that of the United States as a whole. Nineteen and four-tenths per cent of the pupils were in school and 80.6 per cent were out of school. Thirty-nine per cent of those who were out of school had completed no more than the eighth grade, while less than 11 per cent had gone beyond high school. In the report are 99 tables and 23 figures showing the results of the investigation. It is impossible to give here a summary of all of the significant data. However, a few of the important issues set forth by Homer P. Rainey, director of the study, summarize the findings:

1. There is necessity of equalizing educational opportunities.
2. There is need of finding employment for youth as they emerge from their school experience.

3. A large percentage of youth believe that economic security is their most urgent personal need.
4. Guidance is one of youth's most pressing necessities.
5. Appropriate and adequate vocational training is still lacking in our schools.
6. General secondary education is in serious need of reorganization.
7. Leisure time is a social problem of real significance.
8. Health education, including social and personal hygiene, should receive a great deal of attention.
9. Youth is indifferent to the ballot and to other civic responsibilities and privileges.
10. There is need for community planning for youth.

The whole report of the American Youth Committee is an outstanding contribution in its field. It is worth the careful study of those who are planning the curriculum and the administration of our secondary schools. The study is a challenge to all educators to see whether the school program has been weighed in the balance and found wanting.

SCHOOL LEARNING WITH VARIOUS METHODS OF PRACTICE AND REWARDS. By George Forlano. Contributions to Education, No. 688. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. 114 p. $1.60.

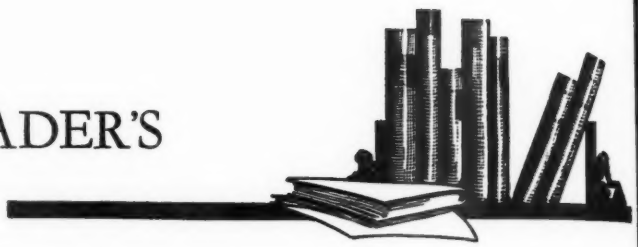
Laboratory experiments in educational psychology have been criticized as being too remote from actual classroom conditions. To meet this criticism Dr. Forlano conducted two types of studies in the elementary schools with pupils in Grades 4, 5, 6, and 7, first, to determine the relative effect of reading and recitation on a learning situation and, second, to determine the effectiveness of reward in learning. In both types of studies pupils were carefully matched and the learning situations of each group were accurately controlled. In the first study, Dr. Forlano found that reading and recitation during the course of learning under ordinary school conditions result in an achievement superior to the achievement accomplished by mere reading and rereading of the material. Furthermore, the recitation method was almost as efficient with sense as with nonsense material. After a certain number of initial readings, recitation is of much more value in learning than additional reading. It would appear from this study that the general practice in our schools of using recitations after a certain amount of study is beneficial.

Dr. Forlano next studied the effectiveness of reward in the learning situation. His conclusions, in part, are:

1. Learning which is accomplished under a promise of a monetary reward is more efficient than learning for which no reward is promised.
2. Learning accomplished under the conditions of actual money reward is more efficient than learning for which no reward is given.
3. The potency of a promised reward is as great as and, in some cases, slightly greater than an actual reward.

These two studies are of significance to supervisors and classroom teachers in that they show that the findings in the laboratories are often borne out in classroom situations and that classroom procedures which have been used for generations perhaps need no scientific studies to determine their validity. It is encouraging, however, to learn that the findings of some experimental studies coincide with those which already have the stamp of social approval.

THE READER'S GUIDE



REPORT OF THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, February, 1938. 243 p. $.35.

Early reviews of the *Report of the Advisory Committee on Education,* which appeared in February, 1938, gave special attention to the amounts of aid recommended (to reach $202,000,000 by 1944-45) and the purposes for which the states might expend such aid. There is strong indication now that time will prove these items to be of minor importance when compared with underlying social and educational concepts expressed in the report.

The main report together with the staff studies offers excellent material for study groups. While much of the same data is extant in various places throughout the nation, it is of great assistance to have it condensed into a limited number of volumes. The report is significant in that it represents a résumé of the findings of a well-balanced, critical, and capable committee.[1] Data collected from many reports and the information gathered at many hearings were critically examined and evaluated prior to publication.

According to the committee, the public school, "long recognized as a vital element in American experience, is now of more importance than at any previous time in the history of the country." Shortcomings of the present system are not glossed over, neither is public education condemned before the American people. Rather the reader is left with an appreciation of the public values derived from an educational program that provides adequate opportunities of instruction.

Growing with the people as the nation developed, the public school has been predominantly local in character. Because of this local emphasis, great inequalities of educational offerings and opportunities have resulted which as the nation became more highly industrialized reached more glaring proportions. Accompanying these extreme variations in ability to support a program has come increased mobility of population to a point where education must be considered as a national rather than a local problem. Nevertheless, the diverse conditions among the states and within the states themselves point to the need for joint planning between state and federal governments. Some degree of control upon the part of the federal government is specifically recommended, although the administration of laws would be left to state and local school officers to as great an extent as possible. Controls governing the proper use of funds would be exercised largely through joint planning, auditing procedures, and through the suspension of grants in extreme cases.

The mere act of giving federal aid to the states would not of itself insure greater edu-

[1] Floyd W. Reeves, Chairman; George F. Zook, Vice Chairman; Paul T. David, Secretary; W. Rowland Allen, Edmund deS. Brunner, Oscar L. Chapman, Elisabeth Christman, Gordon R. Clapp, Ernest G. Draper, Alice Edwards, Henry Esberg (deceased), Mordecai Ezekiel, John P. Frey (resigned), George L. Googe, Frank P. Graham, Luther Gulick, Rev. George Johnson, Charles H. Judd, Thomas Kennedy, Katharine F. Lenroot, Arthur B. Moehlman, Henry C. Taylor, T. J. Thomas, John H. Zink.

cational opportunity for the children of the nation. In addition to the more general recommendations concerning the use of funds,[2] aid is proposed for state departments of education, teacher preparation, the erection of school plants, adult instruction, and library service in rural areas. These proposed grants suggest the importance of improving education by going beyond the general program to reach agents and agencies related to the administration of instruction. Special emphasis is given to the importance of developing improved research techniques on both the national and state level for the purpose of engaging in long-range planning activities. Federal funds for housing the children, to be used primarily to encourage reorganization of school attendance areas, should provide facilities that would make possible greatly improved curricular offerings.

Making adequate educational provision for youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four is observed as a problem of secondary education organized to meet the needs of youth, especially in the vocational field. Such schools would be strong factors in providing efficient training for life at all vocational levels. To enable youth to remain in school, the student aid program would be retained with a greater emphasis on the needs of individuals and with more attention to the problem of job placement at the close of the formal educational training period. An important need in the training of youth is an improved dissemination of occupational knowledge, together with improved guidance service for those who contemplate entrance into some occupation. A closely related recommendation was also made to increase the educational emphasis of the Civilian Conservation Corps organized upon a civilian basis.

Federal activity in the field of higher education has been generally associated with the Land-grant colleges for which appropriations totaled $28,252,583 in 1937-38. The general improvement which has come to agriculture and its related arts is viewed as desirable and clearly justifies the use of federal funds for such purposes. Problems within this field are largely confined to providing better socio-economic adjustment of the Negroes through extension work in the Land-grant colleges, and to the rather elusive need for greater coordination of the post-secondary schools.

In the secondary school area, the federal government has a number of diversified activities, including the schools of the District of Columbia, the Indian schools, schools in the outlying possessions, and the provision of education for the children of governmental employees on isolated locations. The development of a uniform federal policy emphasizing improvement and a plan of coordination with existing public schools wherever possible would remedy many of the present shortcomings of a system that has grown up to meet conditions as they have arisen.

The secondary schools have already been the recipients of federal aid for vocational education. Extended experience has uncovered fundamental weaknesses that may be overcome only by revision of the federal statutes. Better utilization of funds should come with revision to give greater freedom among the states to determine the scope of vocational offerings and to include vocational guidance, occupational information to all students, vocational retraining, employment and re-employment, and such other activities

[2] Adapted from Table I, Chapter IX, p. 195, *Committee Report:*

Proposed Grants	*1939-40*	*1944-45*
A. General aid to elementary and secondary education	$40,000,000	$140,000,000
B. Improved preparation of teachers and other educational personnel	2,000,000	6,000,000
C. Construction of school buildings	20,000,000	30,000,000
D. Administration of state departments of education	1,000,000	2,000,000
E. Educational service for adults	5,000,000	15,000,000
F. Library service for rural areas	2,000,000	6,000,000
G. Cooperative educational research, demonstrations, and planning	2,000,000	3,000,000
Total	$72,000,000	$202,000,000

as may properly come within the general field of vocations.

The purpose of this brief review of the Committee's report is to indicate its value as a foundation analysis of many of the critical educational problems before the people of the United States. It may most appropriately be used to gain an appreciation and a broad view of education as it now exists. There are many conflicting issues, but probably none more crucial than that of federal control in contrast to state and local control. Believing as the American people do that the instruction of children is closely associated with the principles of democracy, they will hesitate to jeopardize the freedom of control over their educational program. Since the need is great, however, it is reasonable to assume that through proper statesmanship a way will be found to harmonize this basic conflict by welding the thinking of the American people into a practical and generally acceptable solution.

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PUPIL-TEACHER LEARNING. A Study, directed by L. Thomas Hopkins. Wilmington: Delaware Citizens Association, 1938. 135 p. $1.50.

Reports of curriculum programs which emphasize the "improvement of the viewpoint of all persons concerned in the education of youth or adults" (page xiv) and not the construction of courses of study are not frequent. The appearance, therefore, of a volume in which teachers state their own educational philosophies and describe the methods used in putting them into practice is a distinct contribution to the literature on cooperative curriculum development.

This study is, in a sense, a culmination of approximately thirty years of activity in modernizing the educational system of the state of Delaware. A unique feature of these efforts has been the activity of an association of citizens which has assisted in each forward step. The publication of this study is one of its many contributions. Training teachers-in-service has been an important aspect of the Delaware program. As a phase of this program, groups of teachers in two Delaware cities met once a week with the editor of this study. At the close of the 1937 school year, the members reported "in oral or written expression on the results of innovating experiences which were motivated by the clearer viewpoints of the ends and processes of education" (p. xv).

Four problems serve as organizing centers for the teachers' reports: "Developing Personalities," "Recognizing Individuality," "Building on Interests," and "Innovating Pupil-Teacher Experiences." The editor first presents his own viewpoint on each problem. Teachers, in turn, state their philosophies in a very refreshing manner and then present applications from their own experiences. The illustrations represent practices at all levels—elementary and secondary, and in special education. The reports deal with the day by day situations of the classroom. The simplicity and practical nature of many of the situations which are reported and the sincerity of the reporters present a promising picture of a curriculum in the remaking. That there are degrees of progress in the thinking and practices of teachers is evident in the report. Some accounts represent the more or less stereotyped and traditional situations. Others are illustrative of the highest type of pupil-teacher learning, such as that given below.

> Many girls are unable to differentiate between successful and unsuccessful home planning. I believe it helps considerably to visit various well-planned and attractive homes in the community and have the woman, or man for that matter, illustrate their values. Many homes in our community are well-run on small incomes. This aspect of home making concerns most of my

girls. I have in mind several who have refinished old furniture and made most attractive rooms as a result of such experience. Where possible, we visit their own homes to discover what the problems are and deal with them there. It may be furniture, furnishings, or arrangement. Then we bring these problems into the classroom. First each girl studies possible ways of making changes. She gathers information through visits to furniture stores, through reading, through pictures, etc. (p. 130).

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THE NEW BOOKS

The Nature of Proof. By Harold P. Fawcett. Thirteenth Yearbook, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. 146 p. $1.75.

The New High School in the Making. By William L. Wrinkle. New York: American Book Co., 1938. 318 p. $2.50.

Woodworking Through Visual Instruction. By J. I. Sowers. Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Co., 1938. 71 p. Illus. $1.50

Redirecting Teacher Education. By Goodwin Watson, Donald P. Cottrell, and Esther M. Lloyd-Jones. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. 105 p. $1.35.

Relationships Between Young Sisters as Revealed in Their Overt Responses. By Margaret B. McFarland. Child Development Monographs, No. 23 (Lois Hayden Meek, Ed.). New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. 230 p. Illus. $3.50.

The New Play Areas—Their Design and Equipment. Edited for National Recreation Association by George D. Butler. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1938. 242 p. Illus. $3.00.

Mankind Throughout the Ages. By Harold Rugg and Louise Krueger. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1938. 583 p. Illus. $1.28.

Changing Countries and Changing Peoples. By Harold Rugg. Volume Two of the Junior High School Course. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1938. 586 p. Illus. $1.88.

The Earth and Its People—Book Three: Nations Beyond the Seas. Revised Edition. By Wallace W. Atwood and Helen Goss Thomas. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1938. 352 p. Illus. $1.56.

Problems and Values of Today, Book II. By Eugene Hilton. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1938.

Supervision in the Elementary School. By Samuel Smith and Robert K. Speer. New York: The Cordon Co., 1938. 460 p. $2.90.

The Training of Prison Guards in the State of New York. By Walter M. Wallack. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. 417 p. Illus. $2.75.

Finding Wisdom. By Gertrude Hartman. New York: The John Day Co., 1938. 147 p. Illus. $3.00.

Friedrich Paulsen—An Autobiography. Translated and edited by Theodor Lorenz. New York: Columbia University Press, 1938. 514 p. Illus. $3.75.

The Purposes of Education in American Democracy. Educational Policies Commission, N. E. A. and A. A. S. A., 1201 Sixteenth St., Washington, D. C. 157 p. $.50.

Proceedings of the Seventy-sixth Annual Meeting of the National Education Association, June 26-30, 1938. Vol. 76. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1938. 989 p.

Creative Ways for Children's Programs. By Josephine Murray and Effie G. Bathurst. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. 396 p. Illus. $2.40.

Story of Our Land and People. By Glenn W. Moon. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1938. 564 p. Illus. $1.92.

Study and Appreciation of the Short Story. By Roy Ivan Johnson, Esther M. Cowan, and Mary S. Peacock. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. 480 p. $1.40.

Le Français Expliqué. By Albert L. Cru. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. 220 p. $1.16.

Teachable Moments—A New Approach to Health. By Jay B. Nash. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1938. 243 p. $1.50.

Teachers' Manual for the Hardy Readers (Second and Third). By Marjorie Hardy. Chicago: Wheeler Publishing Co., 1938. 266 p. $.50.

IN PAPER COVERS

Myers-Ruch High School Progress Test. (For Grades 9-12.) By Charles Everett Myers, Giles M. Ruch, and Graham C. Loofbourow. Yonkers, N. Y.; World Book Co., 1938. Form A, 88 pp., with Manual of Directions, Key, and Class Record, specimen set, $.20.

Aspects of Personality. (For Grades 4-9.) By Rudolf Pintner, John J. Loftus, George Forlano, and Benjamin Alster. Test, Manual of Directions, Key and Class Record, specimen set, $.15. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1938.

Barrett-Ryan-Schrammel English Test. By E. R. Barrett, Teresa M. Ryan, and H. E. Schrammel. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1938. Form A, 6 p., with Manual of Directions, Key, and Class Record, specimen set, $.15.

Glenn-Welton Chemistry Achievement Test. By Earl R. Glenn, and Louis E. Welton. Form A, with Manual of Directions, Key, and Class Record, specimen set, $.15. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1938.

Minnesota Rating Scale for Personal Qualities and Abilities. (Revised.) By Clara M. Brown. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1938. $.05; $1.00 a hundred.

Getting Acquainted with Words. (My Dictionary Notebook.) Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1938. Pp. 64. $.12.

Vocabulary Power Tests. By Norman K. Frick. Introductory Test, for grades 5-8. Junior Test, for grades 7, 8, 9. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1938. Each, $.25 per pkg. of 30.

The Economic Status of Rural Teachers. By Committee of The National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington, D. C. June, 1938. Pp. 32. $.25.

An Analysis of State Statutes for Six Professions: Accountants, Architects, Lawyers, Nurses, Physicians, Teachers. By Committee on Tenure, National Education Association, Washington, D. C. June, 1938. Pp. 53. $.25.

Enrolment Trends in City School Systems, 1933-34—1937-38. Educational Research Service, National Education Association, Washington, D. C. Circular No. 5, May, 1938. Pp. 46. $1.00.

The Exceptional Child at Home and at School. By Goodwin Watson and Frank Astor. Child Research Clinic Series, Vol. II, No. 6. Woods Schools, Langhorne, Pa. Pp. 21.

Vocabulary Booklet in the Social Studies for Junior and Senior High Schools. By John P. Dix. Revised edition. Kansas City, Mo.: John P. Dix, Northeast Junior High School, 1938. Pp. 120.

How to Establish a Sound Teachers' Retirement System. Report of Publications Committee, National Council on Teacher Retirement, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., March 1, 1938. Pp. 19. $.15.

Song Source Material for the Activity Curriculum. By Frances Wright and Laverna L. Lossing. Teachers' Lesson Unit Series, No. 41. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 54. $.75.

National Occupational Conference, 551 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.: *An Appraisal and Abstract of Available Literature on the Occupation of the General Houseworker,* pp. 12. *Occupations in Advertising,* pp. 12. *The Occupation of the Accountant,* pp. 11. *Occupations in Journalism,* pp. 12. *The Occupation of the Architect,* pp. 8. Each, $.10.

Pupil Portraits, Form A, Form B, and Manual of Directions. By R. Pintner, J. B. Maller, G. Forlano, and H. C. Axelrod. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938.

Gates-Strang Health Knowledge Tests. By Arthur I. Gates and Ruth Strang. For Elementary Tests (Grades 3 to 8), Forms A, B, C; for Advanced Tests (Grades 7-12), Forms D, E, F. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Each form, $3.15 per C. Sample set, $.15.

Two Studies in Education: *The Relation of Accuracy to Speed in Addition; A Study of Bilateral Transfer.* By Henry Lester Smith and Merrill Thomas Eaton. Bulletin of School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, Vol. XIV, No. 2, March 1938. Pp. 42. $.50.

Self-Regulation in the Motion Picture Industry. Annual Report, by Will H. Hays. Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, Inc., 28 W. 44th St., New York, N. Y. Pp. 31.

Educating Salt Lake City's Children. School Year 1936-37. Forty-seventh Annual Report, Board of Education, Salt Lake City, Utah, 1937. Pp. 81. Illus.

Syllabus Guide for Observation of Demonstration Exercises. By Florence E. Bamberger, Prentice Hall, Inc., 70 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y., 1938. Pp. 71. $.75.